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ABSTRACT

Thirty-one papers are included in this compilation: "Learning as a Part of Political Campaigning" (Boggs); "Life Review among Senior Citizens as Product of Drama" (Boggs, Leptak); "The Knowing/Doing Dilemma" (Bodrey, Felstehausen); "Facilitating Individuation in the Adult Learning Group" (Dirkx); "The Fourth R: Relationships in the Adult Basic Education Classroom" (Dirkx, Spurgin); "Effects of Instruction in Metacognitive Skills on the Adult Learner" (Dixon); "Methodology of Base Christian Communities" (Emge); "Use of the Lens Model to Describe How Directors of University-Based Continuing Nursing Education Programs Make Decisions Concerning Programmatic Offerings" (Farrah); "Literacy among Noninstitutionalized Older Adults" (Fisher); "Comparison of the Effectiveness of Lecture, Case Study and Video Tape as Inservice Police Training Methods" (Goddard); "Identifying Appropriate Adult Educator Practices" (Henschke); "Use of Appropriate Learning Techniques for Teaching Adult Residents in a Correctional Setting" (Henschke, Perry); "Effects of Educational Orientation and Psychological Type of University Faculty on Adult Learner Satisfaction" (Hynes); "May 7 Cadre School" (Lan); "Media Selection Model and Preadoption Evaluation Instrument for Distance Education Media" (Lane); "Women's College Alumnae of an External Degree Program" (Littrell); "External Evaluation: Balancing Humanistic Philosophy with Behavioristic Methodology" (Mason, Kersten); "Hans-Georg Gadamer and Tradition" (McKenzie); "Characteristics and Implications for Effective Orientation and Training of New Extension Field Staff" (Nolting, Broz); "Modeling Continuing Professional Education" (Oaklief); "Intentional Culture Change by Managers within an Organization: A Multiple Case Study Analysis" (O'Neill); "Needs Analysis Conducted for the Service Training Department of Cummins Engine Company, Inc." (Paine); "Examination of Learning Styles of County Officials" (Peterson); "Relationships among Preference for Educational Structure, Self-Directed Learning, Instructional Methods, and Achievement" (Russell); "Traditional and Reentry Women Nursing Majors: Motivational Factors, Vocational Personalities, Barriers and Enablers to Participation" (Scott, Murk); "Technology: A Stimulus to Policy Development in Adult and Continuing Education" (Sexton); "Research in Adult and Continuing Education" (Snoddy, Levine); "A Model for Utilizing Applied Business Research in a University Continuing Education/Extension Program" (Spikes); "Adult Education as a Discipline in the University" (Weinstock); "Learning Opportunities for Volunteers: The Relationship of Learning Styles to Participation" (Wiederhoeft); and "Motivation as Patterns of Interactive Factors" (Wood, Wood). (CML)

ED330781

1989 Midwest
Research-to-Practice
Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

University of Missouri St. Louis

University Extension
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI ST. LOUIS

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October 12-13, 1989

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University of Missouri-St. Louis
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St. Louis, Missouri

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October 11, 1989

Dear Research-to-Practice Conference Participants

It is my pleasure to welcome you to the Eighth Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education, and to the University of Missouri-St. Louis campus.

This conference has developed its distinction and excellence by linking research and practice. The sessions you attend, as well as the others you just read in this publication, will provide opportunity for you to learn and grow.

Both the steering and local arrangements committees have worked diligently to provide general, concurrent, and invited topic sessions focused on our field, as well as to offer you opportunities to consult and interact with colleagues. The researchers and practitioners have also worked very hard to bring us quality papers. I extend my deep appreciation to these committees, the writers and the co-hosts, as well as the cooperating groups who helped sponsor all aspects of this conference.

Enjoy the conference, our campus, and beautiful metropolitan St. Louis.

Cordially,

John A. Henschke

John A. Henschke
University of Missouri-St. Louis

October 11, 1989

Dear Research-to-Practice Conferee:

We, the local arrangements committee, welcome you to the eighth annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference at the University of Missouri-St. Louis.

Our primary objectives during the planning stages of this conference were: 1) to incorporate Adult Education principles into the conference format in order to establish a balance between theory and practice; and 2) to provide an optimum level of hospitality to put you at ease and promote comfort.

We want to extend a special thanks to the varied presentors who will be sharing insights from a wide variety of topics. The 1989 Steering Committee encouraged maximum conferee participation at the concurrent sessions; we appreciate their input in helping us to realize our goals. The sessions facilitators deserve our recognition for their time, efforts, and energy. We want to especially thank our Conference Chair, Dr. John A. Henschke, and Local Arrangements Committee Chair, Ann Wegman, for their organizational skills and guidance.

Sincerely,

The Local Arrangements Committee for the 1989 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

Ron Goff
John A. Henschke—Conference Chair
Wen-Ying Hsieh
Dave Klostermann
Jack Perry
Beth Pike
Lisa Pogorzelski
Mike Sullivan
John Vernitte
Ann Wegman—Chair

STEERING COMMITTEE MEMBERS

1989 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

Barbara A. Bauer
Central Michigan University

Lawrence S. Berlin
University of Michigan

David Boggs
Ohio State University

Robert D. Boyd
University of Wisconsin-Madison

Charles Brunning
University of Minnesota

Chere C. Coggins
University of Wisconsin-Madison

John M. Dirkx
University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Trenton R. Ferro
Ball State University

James C. Fisher
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee

Laverne Forest
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ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult,
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Leon McKenzie
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Craig Mealman
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Peter J. Murk
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Charles R. Oaklief
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Beth N. Pike
University of Missouri-St. Louis

James E. Snoddy
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W. Franklin Spikes III
University of Missouri-St. Louis

Michael E. Spurgin
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John Vernitte
University of Missouri-St. Louis

Ann Wegman
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Diana (Danny) Wood
Indiana Department of Education

George S. Wood, Jr.
Ball State University

Terri Workman
Purdue University-Fort Wayne

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Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference
Schedule of Events

Wednesday, October 11, 1989

4:00-9:00 p.m.	Conference REGISTRATION Hospitality for early arrivers Hosted by Missouri Valley Adult Education Association and Missouri Association for Adult, Continuing & Community Education	The BRECKENRIDGE Lambert-Hotel Mtg. Rms. 1 & 2

Thursday, October 12, 1989

8:30 a.m.	**Registration** • Coffee.......and Hospitality	J.C.PENNEY BUILDING Lobby
8:59-10:30	**Opening General Session**	Auditorium
	by John A. Henschke, Conference Chair Associate Professor of Adult Education and Chair, Department of Educational Studies University of Missouri-St. Louis and Continuing Education Specialist East Central Region University Extension University of Missouri	
9:05-9:15	Welcome: Donald W. Robinson, Dean School of Education University of Missouri-St. Louis	
9:15-10:30	Panel of Experts: "Qualitative-Quantitative Research and Practice Issues" —Louis M. Smith, Washington University —Lawrence S. Berlin, University of Michigan —Gary D. House, University of Missouri-St. Louis —Dennis K. Smeltzer, University of Missouri-St. Louis —Steven D. Spaner, University of Missouri-St. Louis Moderator: S. Joseph Levine, Michigan State University	
10:30-10:45	**BREAK**	Lobby

10:45-11:45 Concurrent Sessions I

Room 78 Boggs, David L. and Leptak, Jeffrey. LIFE REVIEW AMONG SENIOR CITIZENS AS A PRODUCT OF DRAMA. This study describes the substance of life review, (the most fundamental development task in old age), among senior citizens who view a theatrical performance focusing on issues and dilemmas confronted in old age; and assesses the potency of drama as a vehicle for facilitating life review (Practitioner Concerns). pp. 9-15.

Room 126 Dirkx, John M. FACILITATING INDIVIDUATION IN THE ADULT LEARNING GROUP: THE ROLE OF THE FOCAL PERSON. This paper is a continuation of a research program that aims at an examination of the processes by which small groups of adult learners establish this transformative capacity and how it may be facilitated in practice settings (Research Studies). pp.25-31.

Room 72 Dixon, Ruth A. THE EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTION IN METACOGNITIVE SKILLS ON THE ADULT LEARNER. Research Questions: Will there be significant differences in the levels of meta-comprehension of adult students before and after 10 weeks of instruction in metacognitive comprehension strategies? Will there be a significant difference between recent high school graduates as opposed to those who have been away from formal education for more than five years? (Metacognition refers to active control over one's own knowledge) (Research Studies). pp. 41-47.

Room 229 Emge, Donald R. THE METHODOLOGY OF BASE CHRISTIAN COMMUNITIES: CONSCIENTIZATION WITHIN AN ECCLESIAL CONTEXT. This paper looks at the use of Freire's methodology of conscientization as it is used in Base Christian Communities and primarily as found in Cuernavaca, Mexico. "The analysis of conscientization within the CEBs will offer new insights into this methodology and will also offer additional insights into ways conscientization can be implemented within the context of the United States (Evaluation Studies). pp.49-55.

Room 75 Farrah, Shirley J. THE USE OF THE LENS MODEL TO DESCRIBE HOW DIRECTORS OF UNIVERSITY-BASED CONTINUING NURSING EDUCATION PROGRAMS MAKE DECISIONS CONCERNING PROGRAMMATIC OFFERINGS. Using Brunswik's lens model to capture policy (decision strategies) this study looks at how these directors make decisions concerning individual programmatic offerings. This model provides rich information concerning how an individual selects, combines, and integrates attributes of process as well as the product of decision making (Research Studies). pp. 57-63.

Room 222 Weinstock, Henry R. ADULT EDUCATION AS A DISCIPLINE IN THE UNIVERSITY. Because of inherent differences between adult education and the university, any perspective about adult education being a discipline in the university is controversial. A clarification resulting from the application of philosophical analysis to the issues is therefore in order (Research Issues). pp.215-221.

11:45-1:00 LUNCH—on your own

1:00-1:55 Concurrent Sessions II

Room 126 Dirkx, John M. and Spurgin, Michael E. THE FOURTH R: RELATIONSHIPS IN THE ADULT BASIC EDUCATION CLASSROOM. There is a clear need to understand the gap that exists in terms of research, theory, and practice in the field of adult literacy. Although numerous studies have examined issues surrounding these problems, few have been framed within the context of the socio-emotional dimension of the adult literacy classroom (Research Studies). pp.33-39.

Room 229 Fisher, James C. LITERACY AMONG NONINSTITUTIONALIZED OLDER ADULTS. What function does literacy assume among older adults? The objectives of this study were to: 1) develop an understanding of the role of literacy among noninstitutionalized older adults; 2) examine the relationship between literacy and other activities in which older adults engage; and 3) analyze their use of literacy skills within the context of past experience and current environment (Research Studies). pp. 65-71.

Room 75 Goddard, Noah L. A COMPARISON OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF LECTURE, CASE STUDY AND VIDEO TAPE AS INSERVICE POLICE TRAINING METHODS. While many studies have been conducted comparing the effectiveness of various teaching techniques in education, previous studies have not been conducted to determine how police officers, as adults, learn. The findings focus on the relative effectiveness of three inservice training methods of traditional lecture, case study and videotape (Research Studies). pp. 73-79.

Room 222 Henschke, John A. and Perry, John H. (Jack). USE OF APPROPRIATE LEARNING TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING ADULT RESIDENTS IN A CORRECTIONAL SETTING. Adult education programs in correctional settings are on the increase. With this increase, the important question needs to be raised whether all the theory adult educators espouse, (of learner participation and involvement in determining the direction of the educational program), is applicable with this population and in this setting (Practitioner Concerns). pp.89-95.

Room 72 Mason, Robert C. and Kersten, Linda. EXTERNAL EVALUATION: BALANCING HUMANISTIC PHILOSOPHY WITH BEHAVIORISTIC METHODOLOGY. The balancing of philosophy and methodology must be confronted if researchers and evaluators are to function effectively. The investigators of this study served as external evaluators for a federally funded workplace literacy program involving a community college and an independent manufacturer (Research Issues). pp.127-131.

Room 78 McKenzie, Leon. HANS-GEORG GADAMER AND TRADITION: THE FACILITATION OF ADULT SELF-DISCOVERY. To what extent can the insight of Hans-Georg Gadamer on tradition be used by practitioners of adult education to facilitate self-discovery among adult learners, a major goal of adult education? Guidelines will be presented to enable practitioners to facilitate individual self-discovery through group discussion using insights gleaned from this philosophical inquiry (Research Issues). pp. 133-139.

2:05-3:00 Concurrent Sessions III

Room 222 Henschke, John A. IDENTIFYING APPROPRIATE ADULT EDUCATOR PRACTICES: BELIEFS, FEELINGS AND BEHAVIORS. An assessment instrument, that institutions in a number of states have agreed to use, has been developed to determine five major elements identified as being necessary for an adult teacher to possess in order to practice effectively in the emerging field of adult education. The instrument can function both as a screening device for the identification of adult educators, and to establish a basis for determining inservice needs of adult educators (Research Studies). pp. 81-87.

Room 78 Hynes, Geraldine E. EFFECTS OF EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION AND PSYCHOLOGICAL TYPE OF UNIVERSITY FACULTY ON ADULT LEARNER SATISFACTION. The purpose of this study is to determine whether faculty's understanding of and concern for the unique way adults engage in learning affects student satisfaction with the learning experience; and whether certain personality characteristics of faculty, which relate to their preferred teaching style, affect student satisfaction (Research Studies). pp. 97-102.

Room 75 Lan, Jiang. THE MAY 7 CADRE SCHOOL. This historical research study explains to adult practitioners in the West why Mao's "educational revolution" could not succeed in China. The May 7 Cadre School existed when China was undergoing great turbulence—the Cultural Revolution. A nation's progress depends to a large extent on its ability to draw from its past, especially from its failures (Research Issues). pp.103-109.

Room 72 Littrell, Doris P. WOMEN'S COLLEGE ALUMNAE OF AN EXTERNAL DEGREE PROGRAM: AN INSTITUTIONAL ADVANCEMENT PERSPECTIVE. There is a dearth of research about adult students and their giving/support patterns, and this study will provide a benchmark for further research. Administrators and other practitioners can use the study results to explore and identify areas for program improvement and also to identify potential donors and supporters (Research Studies). pp. 119-125.

Room 126 Oaklief, Charles R. MODELING CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE. There is growing awareness of the increasing need for a planned approach to professional development and the critical role that continuing education specialists play as facilitators in this endeavor. This presentation offers a critical viewpoint for excellence through a comprehensive model of continuing professional education (Research Issues). pp. 149-154.

Room 229 Paine, Stephen C. A NEEDS ANALYSIS CONDUCTED FOR THE SERVICE TRAINING DEPARTMENT OF CUMMINS ENGINE COMPANY, INC. This study is a real-world study focusing on a typical vocational education target group of truck mechanics working on truck engines. The purpose of the project was to determine the optimum training delivery system for service training for Cummins products (Evaluation Studies). pp. 163-169.

3:00-3:20 REFRESHMENT BREAK Lobby

3:20-4:15 Special Invited Concurrent Sessions

Room 126 *Building the Bridge Between Research and Practice: Is the Risk Too Great?* University of Missouri-St. Louis graduate students. This session will focus on: Does the Midwest Research-to-Practice conference reflect adult education assumptions and processes? (May be of particular interest to graduate students.)

Room 75 *Future Directions of Midwest Research-to-Practice Conferences.* Sponsored by Northern Illinois University, University of Minnesota and the National College of Education. A discussion of 1990 and 1991 conferences that will serve to provide continuous feedback regarding this conference as it emerges from year to year.

Room 72 Lane, Carla. A MEDIA SELECTION MODEL AND PRE-ADOPTION EVALUATION INSTRUMENT FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION MEDIA A broad-based telecourse evaluation instrument was developed to be used by post-secondary personnel involved in telecourse adaption using a four-point scale to rate various aspects of each of the components of a telecourse. The significance of the study is based upon the contributions it will make to the existing media selection theoretical base of the distance education field, as well as the practical application of that theory (Evaluation Studies). pp. 111-117.

Room 78 Martin, Lawrence G. *Foundations of Linking Research to Practice.* An explanation and discussion of Chris Argyris, Robert Putnam, and Diana McCain Smith's ACTION SCIENCE, which is a major building block linking research to practice.

Room 222 McElhinney, James. *Research Methodology 101.* An overview of basic research methodology for the beginner/novice. Also affirms the fact that practitioners are already doing research-oriented activities and may not be aware of this. Will serve to dispell fears of the unknown—how to research!

Room 229 Russell, Jan M. RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PREFERENCE FOR EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE, SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING, INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS, AND ACHIEVEMENT. Five research questions guided this experimental study to determine if either learner preference for educational structure or self-directed learning is associated with achievement using particular instructional methods that represent high- and low-structure settings. Forty female nurses comprised the sample (Research Studies). pp.177-183.

4:30-6:30 **RECEPTION**
Sponsored by American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) and the Chrysler Corporation
Greetings from: Dr. W. Franklin Spikes III, AAACE
Introduction of Honored Guests

University of Missouri-St. Louis
Alumni Center
7956 Natural Bridge Road

DINNER — on your own
** refer to hospitality flyer for restaurant locations, menus, transportation, and maps.**

Friday, October 13, 1989

8:00-9:00 **Steering Committee Meeting** (Coffee and Donuts) J.C. Penney Building, Rm. 119

8:30 **Coffee and Hospitality** J.C. Penney Building, Lobby

9:00-9:55 Concurrent Sessions IV

Room 75 Boggs, David L. LEARNING AS PART OF POLITICAL CAMPAIGNING. Adult educators are acutely aware that political skills are necessary for securing scarce resources. The purpose of this study was to document the educational nature of that experience, and its intellectual content within its social context (Practitioner Concerns). pp.1-7.

Room 126 Boldrey, Tom and Felstehausen, Joyce L. THE KNOWING/DOING DILEMMA. "We know *and* we teach; we do not practice what we preach." This action research, participatory session is based on three assumptions about conference attendees and planners; and will follow the processes of Pfeiffer and Jones' experiential learning cycle (Research Issues). pp. 17-23. (This presentation will continue into Concurrent Session V.)

Room 78 O'Neill, Paul E. INTENTIONAL CULTURE CHANGE BY MANAGERS WITHIN AN ORGANIZATION: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY ANALYSIS. This case study, based on interviews, observation, and document review, examines the change process of three management groups that had substantial overall success in changing their organizational cultures. The results of the study should be practical to leaders charged with the responsibility of leading an organizational culture change effort (Research Studies). pp. 155-161.

Room 72 Peterson, Mark. AN EXAMINATION OF LEARNING STYLES OF COUNTY OFFICIALS. How do local public officials interact and process information, and how does this learning translate into placing issues on an action agenda? This ethnographic research effort explores the gap between rhetoric and action of public officials who are in a position of affecting an entire community through their knowledge concerning important public issues, such as earthquake preparedness (Practitioner Concerns). pp. 171-176.

Room 229 Sexton, Charlene A. TECHNOLOGY: A STIMULUS TO POLICY DEVELOPMENT IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION. Identifying and discussing three elements necessary for developing a policy perspective toward technology and adult education is the purpose of this study. The presentation may also serve to guide research, examining the role of adult educators in forming policy in post-secondary institutions (Research Issues). pp.193-199.

Room 222 Snoddy, James E. and Levine, S. Joseph. RESEARCH IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION: VIEWS FROM THE FIELD. The Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult and Continuing Education and the Adult Education Research Conference are becoming established avenues for practitioners and researchers to examine current concerns and to plan next initiatives. Survey research findings will be combined with dialog concerning current practice and future potential (Practitioner Concerns). pp. 201-207.

9:55-10:15 **BREAK** Lobby

10:15-11:10 Concurrent Sessions V

Room 126 Boldrey, Tom and Felstehausen, Joyce L. THE KNOWING/DOING DILEMMA. (continued from Concurrent Session IV).

Room 72 Nolting, Greg and Broz, Robert. CHARACTERISTICS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE ORIENTATION AND TRAINING OF NEW EXTENSION FIELD STAFF. This study examines the criteria used in selecting and training new Extension field staff workers to assure effective teaching. The target population for this study was the State Directors or acting Directors of Cooperative Extension (Evaluation Studies). pp. 141-147.

Room 229 Scott, Doris J. and Murk, Peter J. TRADITIONAL AND RE-ENTRY WOMEN NURSING MAJORS: MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS, VOCATIONAL PERSONALITIES, BARRIERS AND ENABLERS TO PARTICIPATION. Marketing strategies, counseling services, and personnel policies could be modified to help potential re-entry women nursing majors overcome dispositional and institutional barriers. The re-entry nursing major differs from the traditional college-age nursing major in terms of motivational and enabling factors (Research Studies). pp. 185-191.

Room 78 Spikes, W. Franklin III. A MODEL FOR UTILIZING APPLIED BUSINESS RESEARCH IN A UNIVERSITY CONTINUING EDUCATION/EXTENSION PROGRAM. This study describes how, through the use of applied business research efforts, a program-oriented university extension organization can expand its focus and combine the resources of researchers and practitioners to solve economic development problems of mutual concern (Practitioner Concerns). pp. 209-214.

Room 75 Wiederhoeft, Phyllis C. LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES FOR VOLUNTEERS: THE RELATIONSHIP OF LEARNING STYLES TO PARTICIPATION. What contributes to variation in volunteers' participation in learning opportunities? Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to examine the learning styles of Girl Scout volunteers, and the influence of those learning styles on their decision to participate (Evaluation Studies). pp. 223-228.

Room 222 Wood, George S. Jr., and Wood, Diana K. MOTIVATION AS PATTERNS OF INTERACTIVE FACTORS. There is both theoretical and practical value in more completely and accurately conceptualizing motivation with other than the existing positivist paradigms. This study proposes quite a different way of conceptualizing learner motivation (Evaluation Studies). pp. 229-235.

11:20 BANQUET LUNCHEON SUMMIT LOUNGE, J.C. Penney Building

Music by:	Elaine Sweeney Freelance Harpist Doctoral Student, University of Missouri-St. Louis
Greetings from:	Dr. Wendell L. Smith Associate Vice-Chancellor of Academic Affairs Dean of Continuing Education-Extension University of Missouri-St. Louis
Greetings from:	Mr. Beryl Lycan Director, East Central Region University Extension University of Missouri, Lincoln University
Introduction of keynote speaker	Dr. Wendell L. Smith
Keynote speaker:	Dr. Gunther Dohmen Professor of Adult Education and Chair, Adult Education Department Eberhard Karls University Tuebingen, Federal Republic of Germany
Topic:	**Linking Research and Practice in Adult, Continuing and Community Education**

This keynote presentation will focus on :

- An Educational Working Center for Adult Education: A Linkage Institute
- Research methods that help to understand learner patterns of interpretation and their modifications as well as transformations in learning processes
- Background conditions favorable for research-to-practice linkages

Presentation:	Best Graduate Student Research Award by Professor Lawrence S. Berlin, University of Michigan

It has been a tradition of this conference that an award has been given for the best research presentation by a graduate student. This award is given on the basis of: the written proposal, abstract and paper; management of the session presentation; and competence in dealing with questions and comments directed during the session. Occassionally, more than one student has been given this award. The recipients of the award at the 1988 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference were:

Joan E. Bitterman:	"The relationship between the adult's cognitive style and achieving style to preference for self-directed learning."
Michael J. Offerman:	"Factors leading to determination of three consortia of higher education institutions: A case study."

1:00 p.m. CONFERENCE ADJOURNMENT
John A. Henschke, Conference Chair

Learning as a Part of Political Campaigning

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ABSTRACT

The participant observer method was used to study the dynamics of the political process while running for the office of county commissioner. A theoretical perspective that views the essence of politics as social interactions on the part of individuals and groups for the purpose of authoritatively allocating valued things for a society was used to interpret the public dialogue which surrounded this campaign. The intellectual content and the social context that govern self-directed learning as a political candidate are documented. An explanation of the knowledge and skills required of candidates for local office and the learning resources they utilize, as well as background information on the office of county commissioner, the county, and the choices it faces are presented. Implications in the political process for adult education are explored.

Learning as a Part of Political Campaigning

In November 1988 the author was a candidate for Delaware county Ohio commissioner. The participant observer method (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973; Lofland, 1971) was used to study the dynamics of the political process outside the educational sphere. This larger political process substantively impacts the allocation of resources necessary for the conduct of adult education at the county level. It is elected officials who possess the capabilities to mobilize resources and energies and bring them to bear upon broad or specified objectives. Agencies such as agricultural extension, soil and water conservation, the private industry council, senior citizen centers, the veterans affairs office, the health department, the mental health board, the courts, departments of law enforcement, recreation, and environmental preservation, and others rely upon public officials to provide the resources necessary for their adult education activities.

At least since the days of Cicero, who called campaigning "a most wretched custom", electioneering has had a double-edged reputation. On the one hand it has been viewed as necessary and even somewhat useful part of democratic ritual. On the other hand it has been seen as a seedy and self-advertising public spectacle that frequently attracts ignoble and untrustworthy denizens of society's darkest corners (Sabato, 1981). This negative image probably accounts for the long standing tendency of educators, adult educators included, to avoid political activity. It is a posture both documented and lamented by Griffith (1976) and Stewart (1982). Each advances the thesis that exercising political skills, both internally as well as in the larger community, is necessary for securing scarce resources. Furthermore, running for political office is itself a rich opportunity for self-directed learning.

It should also be noted that in a larger perspective, educators obviously share responsibility for carrying a share of the burdens involved in conducting society and transmitting its benefits. Indeed, political campaigns are an occasion for civic education for voters. According to Will (1988, p.91), "In the crucible of competition, the candidates learn their own minds and the public's mind. And both minds are shaped as well as discovered in the process."

THE PROBLEM. According to Easton (1966, p.2) the essence of politics is social interactions on the part of individuals and groups for the purpose of authoritatively allocating valued things for a society.

Such allocations distribute valued things among persons or groups in one or more of three possible ways (Easton, 1965, p.50). An allocation may deprive a person of a valued thing already possessed. Widening a road can deprive residents of property, peace and quiet, and trees. An allocation may obstruct the attainment of valued things which would otherwise have been obtained. Senior citizens expecting to build an activities center will have to wait if the funds are used to repair live-stock barns at the fairgrounds. An allocation may give some persons access to valued things and deny them to others. The sewer system may be extended in one part of a county rather than another. The fundamental fact confronting all societies is that scarcity of some valued things prevails. Through allocations by elected officials certain things are denied to some people and made accessible to others. Candidates and indeed, adult educators, must be able to understand and participate in that dialogue. Such social interactions are the basic unit of analysis.

CANDIDATE PREPARATION. Candidates are expected to offer solutions to community problems. Having specific ideas to be presented in what Will (p.174) calls, "Primary colors nailed firmly to a tall mast", requires thought and study. Ideas about what ought to be done are not frivolous things. "Ought" is the language of moral duty. At the same time politics is not a seminar; it is not a disinterested quest for Truth. Nor is it always gentle. It is about numbers and intensity, that is, getting a cadre of intense supporters to help win the required gross number of voters.

Use of varied resources in order to learn about the community and ingenuity in overcoming obstacles was as essential for this political candidate as it is for other self-directed learners. Required reading included state and county government reports, minutes and proceedings of public meetings, newsletters of agencies and citizen groups, local newspapers, and publications of the Ohio County Commissioners Association. Attendance at meetings of community groups afforded opportunity to hear the sometimes strident dialogue over issues paramount in the minds of voters.

Interviews were another primary data source. Individuals with particular knowledge and insight regarding county government were sought out. They can be grouped in four categories. First, there were persons whose responsibilities relate directly to counties. The directors of state government departments of Taxation, Human Services and Transportation are examples. Their programs are complex, the documents they provide are voluminous, their candor is usually refreshing. Second, were elected city, village, and township officials, as well as county level office holders. They are in direct day-to-day contact with the Board of Commissioners and know well its responsibilities and priorities. In addition, this category includes persons who work for the county in one capacity or another, whether by virtue of merit or patronage. The third category consisted of persons outside of government who have considerable interest in its tone and direction. They include land developers, sportsmen, attorneys who interact frequently with officials in the courthouse, and community leaders interested in specific projects. This category also includes political activists who support the candidate. The last category consists of registered voters whose views are often difficult to obtain but in the end count the most.

The county

Beneath the placid surface of small town and rural traditions there is alarm over the rapid pace of growth in rapidly urbanizing counties. Profound anomalies attend the ongoing transition from a rural economy and culture to urban amenities and values. Concerns about housing developments, traffic congestion, and shopping centers surplanting open space underlie most of the political dialogue. Fields that used to grow corn now sprout new homes with price tags that defy credulity.

While 77% of this particular county's 460 square miles are devoted to agriculture, off-farm income is the rule rather than the exception for farm families, and 80% of all jobs are in manufacturing, retail trade, service industries, and state, county, and local government. Relative prosperity masks the problems faced by human service agencies relying primarily on volunteers. Reluctance to admit that insufficient housing and medical care, unemployment, child abuse, poverty and substance abuse exist or that government help is necessary is reinforced by a rural tradition of self-sufficiency. The local Farm Bureau chapter, for example, does not collect data on farm foreclosures and no programs exist to assist their former owners with career transition.

Five reservoirs and two state parks provide opportunities for fishing, boating, swimming, hunting, and scenic background for biking, marathons, and family picnics. Yet, outsiders who come to enjoy such are resented for turning the county into a playground. Pride in the county's four school systems is mitigated by consistent voter rejection of initiatives to increase tax support for schools.

The dialogue. In this campaign a cacophony of conflicting convictions attended the public discussions of land use planning, annexation, and a variety of human service issues. Since the Board of County Commissioners is the pivotal body in all three areas, candidates for this office were expected to indicate their views on these matters. Voters could then assess who would be careful custodians of their values and resources. This ultimate fitness test was complicated by the overlapping nature and complexity of the topics as well as lack of consensus in the electorate over their resolution.

Land use planning. Communities inundated by growth recognize the necessity to plan. The planning process forces communities to make choices about such things as desired population density, traffic flow, commercial development, zoning, parks and green space, public services, tax abatements, and building codes and inspection. Nearly all the options implied unwelcomed change.

Annexation. Unincorporated land adjacent to growing municipalities is usually ripe for annexation. Since annexation results in forfeiture of control over population density and loss of some tax revenue, the community expects public officials to do everything possible to prevent it from happening.

An annexation petition is granted when it can be shown that the area in question will be improved by addition of some service that it presently lacks, such as water and sewers. Denying the petition requires an allocation of resources to install these amenities. Extension of water and sewer lines is a complicated process involving contractors, developers, and financial institutions. More significantly, it appears to favor one segment of the county over another and necessitates extensive communication and justification.

Human services. While the ravages of time undermine roads, bridges, and ditches, and a growing population requires expanding sewers and roads, human problems are more complex and intractable. They are prompted by ignorance, domestic violence, debt, disease, substance abuse, poverty, unemployment and old age. Many of the problems cut across age and socio-economic lines and are felt in every sector of the county. They test and surpass the limits of available resources and staff of the agencies which attempt to solve them. Education, implied or explicit, is an important component.

CONCLUSION

Campaigning for public office offered unique challenges to learn, to organize, to listen, to communicate - not unlike the skills required in the successful practice of adult education. A candidate must exhibit perseverance, courage, and resilience - not unlike what we expect of adult learners. And while some candidates and elected officials are held in disdain for a variety of offensive behaviors, in general, the knowledge they possess and the skills they exercise directly impact our capacity to garner the resources necessary for adult education.

Furthermore, at the local level the educative value of a political campaign may well exceed the collective efforts of educators to accomplish civic education. Political campaigns are a vital part of the dialogue about distribution of the public's valued resources. Campaigns promote voter understanding of the difficult choices to be made and the consequences of those choices - civic education that adult education agencies and programs seem reluctant to do.

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Life Review among Senior Citizens as a Product of Drama

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ABSTRACT

A theatre performance with a script containing issues and dilemmas confronted in the senior citizen years was the catalyst to study life review reminiscing. Structured interviews with 13 volunteers in attendance at the play yielded the content of reminiscing and some indication of the potency of drama as a means for facilitating it. The literature contains definitions of life review and an emerging consensus that it occurs throughout adult development. Participants reflected that the play did relate to their lives in meaningful ways. They were not in agreement that they all reminisced, yet questions about their present lives often yielded comparisons with the past and reflections on the significance of past decisions and behaviors. All three types of reminiscing - informative, evaluative, and obsessive, were exhibited. Regrets, conflicts, and accomplishments constituted the substance of these reflections. Most seemed to have adjusted well to past traumatic events. Some participants ascribed significance to reminiscing as a means for understanding the past and achieving integration in their lives.

Life Review Among Senior Citizens as a Product of Drama

The purpose of this study was first to describe the substance of life review among senior citizens who attended a theatre performance that presented issues and dilemmas confronted in old age. Life review is a process of self-assessment and re-integration. According to Moody (1978), it involves extracting meaning from past events. Old people looking back at their life experiences cannot help wondering, What did it all mean? What did it amount to? What was the result of all those efforts that seemed so important at the time? A second purpose was to assess the potency of drama or theatre as a vehicle for facilitating life review. Live performances may facilitate life review among audience members, especially if they understand that is the purpose of the drama. Hately (1982) argues that facilitating life review is most effective when planned as part of a structured program. Cornish (1978) notes that the assumed benefits of senior theatre include renewed self-image, growth in coping skills, and improved socialization. While these outcomes pertain to the performers, a related question is what benefits, in addition to entertainment, are derived by audience members?

METHODOLOGY. The means of prompting life review in this study was through a performance of "A Grandparent's Scrapbook" by the cast of Grandparents Living Theatre, a Columbus company of senior citizen actors. The script originated in oral history workshops with the cast members and other seniors, with additional material coming from poetry, newspaper clippings, group improvisations, and workshop discussions, all arranged and adapted for the stage by the artistic director of the company (Reilly, 1988). The 35-member audience was informed in advance that they would be asked to participate in a research project on reminiscing as a follow-up to their attendance at the play. Thirteen of the audience volunteered to be interviewed. They averaged 75 years in age, three were male and over half of the group had some college education. Four were married and the rest were either single, divorced, or widowed. They averaged only 1.7 offspring. Presently residing in an upper-middle class community, all but one had some work experience including such occupations as teacher, social worker, engineer, secretary, and sales clerk. The tape-recorded structured interviews were transcribed and analyzed to identify patterns and topical categories or themes. Themes were coded, cut from the transcripts, and grouped for further consolidation and comparison. The salient themes provided the framework for presentation of the data (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982, pp. 165-169).

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE. Butler (1963) first described life review as a natural process by which older adults recall the past in order to examine latent conflicts in preparation for death. More recent research categorizes life review as a form of reminiscence, distinguished by self-assessment and re-integration. There is an emerging consensus that life review occurs throughout adult development, (Hately, 1982; Ryant, 1983; Molinari and Reichlin, 1984-85; Webster and Young, 1988), but research regarding the effects of life review and its value in education has been inconclusive (Merriam, 1980; Molinari and Reichlin; Webster and Young). In spite of such uncertainties, many programs have been developed using life review for a variety of purposes.

Because reminiscence and life review are often used interchangeably, both terms need to be examined. Merriam's review of the literature found that reminiscence is typically defined as recall of the past, dwelling on the past, or a process of memory. Molinari and Reichlin explain that "life review reminiscence in the aged is an intense, engrossing activity, the process and content of which are affected by current living conditions." (p. 87). Thus, despite the emphasis upon the past, reminiscing may serve to find meaning in the present. Lewis (1971) further suggests that reminiscing means sharing memories with others, but there is little agreement in the literature about the need to involve other persons.

Lo Gerfo (1980-81) identified three types of reminiscence, only one of which could be defined as life review according to Butler's original explanation. Informative reminiscence consists of storytelling and recollection of factual material to provide pleasure and enhance self-esteem. Storytelling is probably the most common form of reminiscing, considered by Lo Gerfo to be "essentially non-problematic." (p. 40). Evaluative reminiscence is what Butler called life review, focusing on reassessment and reintegration of the past and present. Either informative or evaluative reminiscing can develop into the third type of recollection, obsessive reminiscence, which originates in guilt over a negative life review or as a defense against an unpleasant present. Such obsession with the past can prevent older persons from developing new possibilities in life.

Malde (1988) notes that life review is typically prompted by transitional events associated with aging such as a change in living arrangements, loss of a friend or loved one, or one's own approaching death. Although life review is often initiated by unpleasant occasions or reexamination of past problems, most persons engage in it deliberately and with great intensity, perhaps as a means of resolving such conflicts. Despite the role of external factors beyond anyone's control, participants in life review may be self-directed in choosing the content for examination. Even when life review leads to anxiety or depression, many people ultimately experience great satisfaction and develop a better understanding of and appreciation for their place in society and history (Molinari and Reichlin, 1984-85).

Molinari and Reichlin's review of the literature on life review made these conclusions:

1) Life review is evaluative, unlike other forms of reminiscing.
2) Life review occurs in all ages, but quality and intensity may differ with age.
3) There are interpersonal and intrapersonal dimensions and functions of life review.
4) Life review is often positive in outcome, depending on the setting.
5) Researchers should clearly distinguish between life review and other forms of reminiscence.

It would appear that the most we can say conclusively about life review is what it is, that it does happen, and it may be good or bad, depending upon many variables that have yet to be clearly identified.

FINDINGS. Most of the subjects reported that the play did relate to their lives in a meaningful way. Several persons reported reflecting upon the content of the play prior to the interview, such as the person who described how "another lady and I talked it over in different phases and looked back on things we remembered that were related in the story to those events of our own lives, and we enjoyed it thoroughly." Another said the play "covered nearly every facet of a person's emotions and feelings and I think all of us related with nearly every phase of that in some way, so it was just sort of a trip back memory lane."

Most of the subjects appreciated the play for its humor and readily recalled a few amusing scenes; as one person said, "it was one funny thing right after another." Yet the play does have some strikingly poignant moments. One audience member was "a little surprised with the depth of some of the positions they raised, that they would go into the death of one's partner and various aspects of life." Those active persons who frowned upon reminiscing were generally less satisfied by the more serious parts of the performance. In addition to the content of the play, the skill of the actors impressed many in the audience who expressed surprise that older persons could perform so well.

REMINISCING. Almost two-thirds of the participants said they do not reminisce and seemed critical of those who do reminisce, as seen in comments such as: "No, I do not live in the past, and I think that any elderly person that does and thinks the beautiful years were ages ago has missed something because I think this world is growing better." Another said, "I like to live for today. I mean, I don't see any sense on dwelling in the past. I just like to let what's past is past." On the other hand, one woman who does enjoy reminiscing said, "I know some people say they don't like to ... but each period of your life has some things that you recall." Another woman who denied reminiscing answered even direct questions such as "are you married?" with detailed anecdotes.

Most of the participants described reminiscing as a social activity or a way to pass time. A subject who enjoys reminiscing said, "When we older people get together, it almost always comes up, something in the past." Among those opposed to reminiscing, one person allowed herself three weeks of recollection after a sister's death, "but that was to work my way through missing her in my grief." A recent retiree finds reminiscing "Can also be a means for understanding the past, and why one did things, like a therapy." Another person said that she reminisces primarily for entertainment, but also, "it gives some continuity to your life."

As might be expected of persons who reminisce socially, much of their reminiscing was informative and even entertaining, rather than evaluative. This excerpt is typical:

> My very first Christmas I can remember so clearly. . . . We lived in the country and my father went out several miles and cut the Christmas tree. . . . That year we had candles, only just about two and a half, three inches long, and we had a little clip to hold them on the bough of the tree. . . . I know I thougt we were rich to have candles on our Christmas tree.

Many of the participants told stories about their family and jobs, and a few commented on political, social, or economic events and trends.

Most of the participants also engaged in some evaluative reminiscing during the interviews, even those who preferred to avoid thinking about the past. Although most of the subjects freely discussed the mistakes and tragedies of their lives, their present outlook is quite positive. This comment is typical: "I think maybe there have been some things that might have been different, but then I thought, if I didn't do this, this wouldn't have happened, so I guess I'm satisfied." Another person described reminiscing as "more or less a pattern to improve whatever I'm doing," using past experience to respond to current conditions.

Regrets and Conflicts. Only one participant, who said that he became involved in the senior center as a form of therapy recommended by his physician, perhaps tended toward obsessive reminiscing. He seemed to dwell upon unpleasantness in his life, such as the loss of his wife, his declining health, and an unaccommodating son. Tears came to his eyes whenever he mentioned those subjects. Many expressed regrets about problems with family members. For example, divorce led to a rift between mother and daughter, and so she cannot visit grandchildren. However, most seem to have adjusted well and spoke calmly about regrets and past conflicts.

> "I taught school for a long time, and I think if I had it to do over, I would have learned another vocation so I could have taken it up after my teaching days were over."

> "He [my husband] went off to war and I was four months pregnant, and when he came back he had mental, emotional problems that, being young with a child, I didn't know how to cope with. So I didn't have to make a choice because he made it and left me, pregnant with the second child."

> "When I look back, there's a lot of things that I wouldn't want to go through again that I've gone through. As you get older, your ideas and challenges and just a little bit of everything changes and so you just redevelop."

Accomplishments. Reflections on life achievements contributed to a sense of pride among several participants.

> "I pushed very hard all my life. I became manager because I showed them what I could do. I was a great industrial engineer."

> "I feel fortunate because I've learned through all the things that have happened to me and I've learned what it's like to have a career and to raise children. It's just been great, really."

> "We said we're going to try to get all our major obligations, such as our children educated and our house paid off by age fifty, and we made it."

> "I worked hard all my life. I had an interesting life, but it was a hard life, making my own way in the world. I grew up on a farm and everything. We were completely self-sufficient, but everything was very peaceful and well organized, even though during the depression we

didn't have very much in the way of material things.

In addition to specific questions about the play and reminiscing, participants were asked about current conditions and circumstances in their lives. Indirectly such questions invite comparisons of the present with the past and open up the possibility of further reminiscing. The responses comprise a portrait of adjustment to old age expressed in themes of independence, relationships, activity, other-centeredness, stereotypes, and remaining goals.

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THE KNOWING/DOING DILEMMA

by

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Abstract

The knowing/doing dilemma may be the single most heuristic issue facing adult educators today. Practitioners create both the need for and the need to apply research; however, breakthroughs in theory and practice seldom occur concurrently. The knowing/doing dilemma is both the cause and result of exemplary practice. Identifying the patterns in the professional development journeys of research sensitive androgogical educators provides one significant basis for improving the preparation and continuous development of adult educators.

Current autobiographical data and research conducted by leaders in adult education suggest the content and context of professional growth and development are inextricably linked. The authors' action research corroborated the research of Knowles (1984) and others while also highlighting the need for additional research in regard to the content, context and the relationship of the context to the content for the professional development of adult educators.

THE KNOWING/DOING DILEMMA

Knowles' advocacy of andragogy has stimulated both controversy and research about situations and environments that facilitate adult learning (Brookfield, 1987; Davenport, 1987). Adult educators know about andragogy, yet many of us still practice only pedagogy which often creates a knowing/doing dilemma. This dilemma may be the single most heuristic issue facing adult educators today, and research that provides a basis for resolving this dilemma is not found easily.

While research sensitive instruction happens for some adult learners, it appears a gap exists between what researchers advocate and what is being done. The norm in adult instruction is still lecture with some guided discussion, desk chairs, and traditional pedagogical learning environments. This gap creates a dilemma for the research sensitive practitioner.

It can be argued that androgogical theory is the source of the knowing/doing dilemma because the theory is not realistic. Or it can be argued the dilemma exists because research sensitive practices have not become the norm. It is our thesis that the latter is the source of the knowing/doing dilemma and this causes us to pose several research questions about what is being done with adult education research findings related to learning context. If context is as important as content in facilitating learning, how is that knowledge used in the preparation of adult educators? What are the critical issues in the development of research sensitive practitioners? How do research sensitive practitioners resolve the dilemma of practicing in a nonresearch sensitive environment? How we arrived at these questions is the focus of this paper.

Our "Knowing" Foundation

Our adult teaching practices are founded on three androgogical concepts. First we "know" that andragogy is not the opposite of pedagogy, nor does it exclude it. It incorporates pedagogical, behaviorist and humanistic principles and practices. Knowles (1984) acknowledges pedagogical methods and didactic instruction as appropriate depending upon the nature of the desired learning outcomes and the nature of the motivation and competence of the learner.

Second, instruction is judged effective only when it produces competence and enhances self-esteem. Androgogy advocates that adult education be both content centered and person centered. Prior to andragogy the question of adults having special needs was seldom, if ever, considered. Person-centered adult education develops fully functioning, self-actualized persons. Combs, Blume, Newman, & Wass (1974) and Maslow (1954) find these people (1) are informed and knowledgeable about the world, (2) have positive and accurate views of themselves, (3) are open to new experiences and to experimentation, (4) have deep feelings of identification with the world community of people and nature, and (5) celebrate differences by their democratic attitudes and behaviors toward people and ideas. The ultimate aim of teaching incorporates the development of these characteristics.

Third, the andragogical model is a process model that emphasizes procedures and resources that help learners acquire information and skills, takes into account the total learning environment (Knowles, 1984) and shifts the focus from teaching to learning (Feuer and Geber, 1988). A positive learning climate is based upon psychological factors that develop mutual trust and respect and facilitate collaboration, action, and interaction. Physical factors ranging from cheerful colors and easy access to refreshments to comfortable chairs and dynamic resources are equally important to positive learning climate.

Adult educators know about the characteristics of adults and their implications for the teaching-learning context, and they know about the environmental ingredients that facilitate learning. The dilemma is that few teachers and institutions apply this knowledge. Many adult educators teach, schedule and allocate resources as they have always taught, scheduled and allocated.

Knowledge and knowing are not synonymous. According to Josefowitz (1980) knowledge is cognitive; knowing is operational. Teaching behavior and goals are anchored in personal belief systems. Individuals behave toward the world as they believe it to be whether or not the beliefs are consistent with reality. Beliefs are reality. Beliefs about ourselves and others, especially about their capabilities, and our beliefs about the nature of learning, become self-fulfilling prophesies (Combs, Blume, Neuman, & Wass, 1974).

There are two principles for changing behaviors. First, we must become aware of our beliefs and their impact on our behavior if we are to set goals for developing behaviors more consistent with research findings. Second, we must develop new images and beliefs about the nature of our reality. To see ourselves with new beliefs is to breathe life into them.

Images of desirable futures are anchored in past experience. If adult educators have not experienced androgogical processes they tend to teach about andragogy and use pedagogical methods. Also, administrators, who have not experienced androgogical processes, tend to provide facilities, resources and rewards based on pedagogical standards. Knowing is not enough. How do we breakthrough the artificial boundaries we constructed because of our experiences? How do we journey from an "either/or" belief system that limits us to a repertoire of requisite variety where dichotomies are united and there is freedom of choice?

Our "Doing" Journeys

Based on the similarities of our experiences, our observations of and conversations with peers, and the biographies of research sensitive practitioners, we found that our journeys are not unique. If research documents patterns in the way research sensitive practitioners develop, significant implications for adult teacher education programs could be drawn. To that end we have decided to share our personal journeys in bridging the gap between research and practice.

As we began to share our knowing/doing journeys with each other, we discovered we could not talk about our journeys without describing the context in which they were made. Early in our professional development we both struggled with our identities as persons and as teachers simultaneously. As children, we grew up with belief systems in which human beings are an active part of an organic universe rather than a reactive organism. We grew up being rewarded for viewing problems as opportunities for creative problem solving. We recognized we were outside the mainstream of the peer group to which we did and yet did not seem to belong. And finally, we prepared for careers that were the only paths that appeared to be open to us.

Early in our professional journeys, we questioned the boundaries that our traditional role models accepted. Some aspects of our traditional role models were compelling and others were restraining. This disturbance in our state of contentment led us to a state of denial. We believed we either had to deny the validity of our role models or had to deny the validity of the personal models that were evolving from our own experiences. In fact, we believed we held two models of the world that were opposite and irreconcilable. The confusion that resulted eventually led to our growth and renewal.

Wilber (1977) provided us insights concerning the dilemma of living in a world defined by opposites and limited by boundaries.

> Every decision we make, our every action, our every work is based on the construction, conscious or unconscious, of boundaries...
>
> To make a decision means to draw a boundary line between what to choose and what not to choose...
>
> In short, to draw boundaries is to manufacture opposites. Thus we can start to see the reason we live in a world of opposites is precisely because life as we know it is a process of drawing boundaries...
>
> And the world of opposites is a world of conflict...
>
> The simple fact is that we live in a world of conflict and opposites because we live in a world of boundaries. Since every boundary line is also a battle line, here is the human predicament. The firmer one's boundaries, the more entrenched are one's battles (pp. 18-19).

As we struggled to change the artificial boundaries that limited us we experienced all four change process phases, contentment, denial, confusion and renewal, described by Weisbord (1987). In contentment we were satisfied with our boundaries. In denial we were aware of our restraints but fearful of change and often felt inadequate. In the confusion phase that followed denial we experienced both chaos and free-floating anxiety. This was the phase that provided an opportunity for growth and positive change rather than retrenchment. Recognizing confusion as opportunity led to renewal. Like Weisbord we found that renewal necessitated installing a self-adjusting system that enabled us to selectively let go of that portion of the past which was no longer functional.

We have discovered some rites of passage in our journeys from knowing to doing. First, like the phenomenon reported by Davis (1982), we had to become aware of "what we did not know that we did not know". At first we believed our teaching practices and approaches took into account our knowledge of the characteristics of adult learners because we delivered knowledgeable, rich, and exciting lectures about those characteristics. We did not know we were not basing our practices upon our knowledge. However, we did experience an inner dissonance but were not sure of its meaning. Only when we could identify and describe the nature of our dissonance were we able to plan ways in which we could make the changes we desired.

Second, we felt we needed approval to do what we thought theory was telling us. Since andragogical practices were often described to but rarely experienced by us, when we tried our new andragogical behaviors we felt uneasy.

Finally, we needed to give ourselves permission to "let go" and "to do" what we knew we could do. This perhaps, was the most difficult task because we were letting go of behaviors some people believed to be essential. For example, in becoming facilitators of learning we needed to let go of some of our authoritative and expert role behaviors.

As we began to search the literature for the meaning of our dilemmas, we discovered our experiences were like those described by other research sensitive practitioners (Knowles, 1984; Rogers, 1961). Like Knowles and Rogers, we had "unfreezing" experiences in new environments that contrasted from the experiences of our formative years. These experiences which caused us to take responsibility for directing our own learning were profound, significant experiences that altered not only our personal perspectives but our sense of purpose.

As we entered the "moving" phase of Lewin's change cycle (changes in attitude, values, structure, behaviors, feelings...) we looked for help and did not find it. It seemed like we were speaking a different language. Others did not seem to be interested in our world of experience. While some listened politely we felt isolated and withdrew into ourselves. These were periods of high anxiety. For a period of time we escaped from this new freedom of choice by over-control, obedience, and followed slavishly what everyone else was doing. In our attempts to fit in, we over-planned and over-produced.

Throughout our journeys we sought professional development activities which were experiential rather than didactic and passive and searched for colleagues who might really know how to help us do what we felt compelled to do. Slowly our experiences led to increased confidence and expanded competence and we found "skunkmates" (Peters & Austin, 1985).

Asking The Right Questions

Davis (1982) believes that, "Contexts are the unquestioned assumptions through which all experiences are filtered" (p. 65). He suggests that one key to major breakthroughs from knowing what we don't know to knowing is to pose appropriate questions as to how contexts are created? If wrong questions are posed, inquiry will focus on wrong data. If the focus is too narrow investigators will fail to comprehend the larger context of the issue. If the focus is too broad, relationships of the pieces to each other may be missed. We, like Davis, believe asking the right questions is the key to yielding worthwhile answers.

If the context and the content for preparing and improving androgogical educators are vital to the outcomes, it is imperative to conduct and apply research regarding the nature of the context, the content and the relationship of the context to the content. Several research questions and issues have been implicitly and explicitly addressed in this paper.

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Facilitating Individuation in the Adult Learning Group
The Role of the Focal Person

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Abstract

Facilitators of adult learning have long been aware that certain individuals frequently come to occupy special positions of influence in small discussion groups. In this paper, the concept of the focal person is advanced as a particular form of influential member. The focal person is viewed as one who emerges during particular periods of crisis and conflict in the group and who facilitates movement of the group towards resolution. The principal characteristics of the influential member as focal person are 1) a representative of the unconscious concerns of the group-as-a-whole; 2) a call for new awareness; and 3) a voice for transformation of the present social order. The results of a case study which examined the role of the focal person in the individuation process are discussed. The findings demonstrate the association of the presence of the focal person with periods of paradox and conflict in the group. Implications of the focal person concept for leaders of adult learning groups are explored.

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FACILITATING INDIVIDUATION IN THE ADULT LEARNING GROUP: THE DYNAMICS AND ROLE OF FOCAL PERSON BEHAVIOR

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Statement of the Problem It is a common observation among facilitators of adult learning groups that certain individuals will occasionally develop considerable influence with the rest of the group members. Specific manifestation of this phenomenon varies from group to group but it is usually characterized by an individual who, for a variety of reasons, becomes the focus of the group's attention and concern. I refer to this general phenomenon in groups as the emergence of the "influential member." There are a number of forms that the influential member may take. One particular form is characterized by increased attention and focus on one member, and then a polarization between the group and the individual, in which the rest of the group either rallies behind this person or bands together to resist her/his initiatives. Often, this form of the influential member seems to occur at certain critical periods in the life of the group, such as when the group is confronting issues of trust, commitment, or leadership and power. Activity and emotionality increases for a time within the group and then recedes, as the issue at hand is either successfully resolved or is abandoned. These characteristics describe what I call a focal person, that is an individual who, through his/her behavior, appears to be articulating focal concerns of the group as a whole.

Purpose of the study What, if any, significance, does the phenomenon of the focal person have for the group-as-a-whole (social system)? Observations of numerous groups and interpretation of studies of group development suggest that the focal person facilitates the process of individuation within the social system of the group, that is, separation, differentiation, and integration. The purpose of the study reported in this paper was to test a conjecture related to the role of the focal person in transformation of the group-as-a-whole (the social system). Specifically, it was conjectured that focal person behavior is associated with the social system's struggle to resolve unconscious conflicts between opposing and seemingly contradictory forces. These conflicts are called "archetypal paradoxes." The present study focused specifically on the role that a focal person may play in the process by which group members come to grips with the realization that the social system is perceived as both a "good mother" and a "bad mother" (Bion, 1961; Boyd; 1983; Durkin, 1964; Gibbard and Hartman, 1973; Slater, 1966). This paradox is referred to as the archetypal paradox of the group as "good mother"-"bad mother." Resolution of the good mother-bad mother paradox is crucial for the development of an effective learning environment in the group (Dirkx, 1987).

Significance of the Study Researchers have been systematically studying the problem of the influential group member for over 50 years. This research tradition strongly suggests that certain forms of influential members hold attain their position of influence through their symbolic value to the group. Examples of "symbolic influential members" include the prophet (Bruegamann, 1978; Heschel, 1962), charismatic individual (Weber, 1964), central person (Redl, 1942), scapegoat (Dunphy, 1974; Gibbard & Hartman, 1974; Mann, 1974) role specialist (Dunphy, 1974), covert role (Gemmill & Kraus, 1988), and hero (Gibbard, 1974; Slater, 1966). Although this literature directs our attention to the importance of the symbolic function of the influential member, it fails in several ways to fully conceptualize the phenomenon under consideration in this study. Many of these early versions do not offer an adequate framework for understanding the group as an entity. Various forms of the influential member seem to emphasis characteristics that are best attributed to individuals rather than the group-as-a-whole. In addition, several of these earlier formulations emphasize a defensive function for the influential member. That is, the group seems to be using this person as a way of warding off unwanted or unacceptable desires and fantasies. The scapegoat and central person are two forms of influential member that reflect this defensive function. Clinical observations, however, and the thrust of this research suggest that the kind of influential member described above also has a potentially powerful transformative effect on the social system. That is, they play key roles in moving the group towards greater differentiation and eventually integration. Finally, individuals who emerge during a period of archetypal paradox seem to manifest several functions which appear to be instrumental to the resolution of the paradox. None of the earlier forms of the influential member to adequately conceptualize the totality of these functions into a single concept. Archetypal thought and specifically the work of Erich Neumann (1954) provides a theoretical context for developing a more indepth understanding of the form of influential member described in the first section of this paper, and the role this person plays in the transformation of the group.

Conceptual Framework In the limited space available, it is not possible to do justice to the theoretical framework which informs this research. I will, however, briefly define three ideas which form the fundamental framework for this study: 1) The group as a whole; 2) The symbolic approach; and 3) archetypal paradox.

The concept of focal person assumes a group-as-a-whole point of view, that is, the group can be understood as an entity. The term used to capture this sense is social system (Boyd, 1983; 1984). The social system of the group has characteristics that cannot be reduced or attributed to individuals or interpersonal interactions. It is has a life of its own, apart from the personal and interpersonal dimensions of group life. The focal person is a dynamic of the social system and not merely the expression of individual behaviors.

The symbolic approach assumes that overt, manifest behavior and emotions which characterize the emergence of the influential member are viewed as representing deeper, largely unconscious concerns with which the group is struggling in its movement towards wholeness and maturity. As the social system begins to form and develop, a variety of these unconscious concerns are activated. Understanding and working through these concerns are essential to movement and growth of the social system and of its members. That is, these concerns become "focal" to the group's development. The focal person plays a key role in helping the social system recognize and resolve these unconscious concerns by serving to call attention to them in an explicit manner.

The notion of archetypal paradox is derived from the theoretical framework of paradoxical thought and analytical psychology, principally the work of Erich Neumann (1954). The paradoxical perspective is "concerned with the observation that groups are pervaded by a wide range of emotions, thoughts, and actions that their members experience as contradictory, and that the attempts to unravel these contradictory forces create a circular process that is paralyzing to groups" (Smith & Berg, 1987, p. 14). The archetypal perspective suggests that these "thoughts, emotions, and actions" which are experienced as contradictory really reflect a struggle with fundamental, unconscious, and universal forces which characterize the process of individuation - the evolution of consciousness out from an unconscious matrix (Neumann, 1954). In this evolutionary process, the specific nature of the psychological struggle is manifest in particular mythological motifs or mythologems. The emergence of the symbol of the social system as mother is one such mythologem that is well documented in the group literature. The archetypal paradox at the core of this mythologem is revealed in images of the group as both a good mother and a bad mother. This paradox will manifest itself in group concerns such as commitment to the group versus freedom to be yourself, feeling cared for versus feeling smothered by the group, and risking closeness but fearing rejection. These issues reflect what analytical psychologists refer to as indications of a matriarchal phase of consciousness. It is to the archetypal paradox at the center of matriarchal consciousness - the group as both a good mother and a bad mother - that this research study was directed. The phenomenon of the focal person is thought to play a key role in articulating, calling the group's attention to, and helping to eventually resolve this archetypal paradox, the contributing to individuation of the group. The outcome of this resolution is to further the forces of individuation within the group.

Methods A single case method using indirect observational techniques and a structured coding system were used to test the study's conjecture. The group used consisted of 10 returning adult students enrolled in a graduate course on the dynamics of instructional groups. Observation included only the ten 150 minute sessions of the experiential, laboratory phase of this course, which also had a traditional seminar component. All 10 sessions were videotape and audiotape recorded. The videotapes of the last three sessions were then used to code for presence of focal persons. It had been determined from a separate analysis that these three session involved the resolution phases of the archetypal paradox of the group as both a good and bad mother. The structured coding system, with specifications for each of the categories included, was developed by the author for this study. Validity tests of the material were found to be acceptable. Trained judges, who followed the coding manual and specifications developed by the author, were used to perform the coding. Interjudge agreement levels, as determined by the weighted proportion of agreement method (Cohen, 1968) determined before, during, and after the coding were all within acceptable limits. Coding was conducted in five minute segments by each judge coding independently. Following a 60 minute period of coding, the judges compared codes and any discrepancies were resolved before continuing. This conference procedure was analyzed for possible sources of bias in the final codings used but no evidence of bias was found. The data were then analyzed using descriptive procedures.

Findings and Discussion The archetypal paradox of interest in this study is reflected in the struggle of the social system with question of whether the group is like a good mother or a bad mother. The resolution of this paradox has profound significance for the ability of the social system to handle and adequately deal with reality demands (Boyd, 1983). Manifestations of the good mother-bad mother paradox were observable at different times over the last three sessions, for total of 135 minutes. During these sessions, 82 five minute intervals (410 minutes) were coded for focal person activity, with a focal person identified for 22% of these intervals. A focal person was identified for 11% (15 minutes) of the total time in which the paradox was observable. These data demonstrate that focal person activity was associated with the manifestation of the archetypal paradox of the group as good mother-bad mother. The first 30 minutes of session 10 illustrates the development of focal person activity within the context of the archetypal paradox of the group as good mother-bad mother.

> The group started this session by several members relating personal experiences since the group had last met. The topics in this discussion included experiences in a local election, a funeral that one of the members had attended, and a visit from a grandmother. Sylvia, a member who had provided considerable negative characterizations of her mother in earlier sessions, took a few minutes at this time to relate to the group her mother's visit. Nell asked what was next and Candy suggested that this was the last chance for their own agenda. A couple suggestions about what to do were raised but none were taken seriously. Interaction during this time was punctuated by periods of giggling and several members talking at once. Candy then asked if individuals felt things were resolved, indicating that she did not have a sense of resolution. The group appeared to be focusing on Candy when Betty entered the discussion. Interaction then seemed to occur primarily between Betty and Candy, but the group appeared intent and focused on their interchange. Candy mentioned that she felt there were several conflicts in the group that had not been resolved. She wondered why the group seemed to feel it was safe to bring up conflicts but not to resolve them. Candy said that she felt anxious to say things and resented the fact the some members had attempted to resolve group conflicts outside the group. She seemed to be quite excited and animated at this time, as she was talking with Betty and the group. Betty also began to criticize the group for not effectively dealing with the conflicts which seemed to largely involve her. She said that she could not trust the

> group to "work things out," and felt threatened when she wanted to disagree. She referred to this state of affairs as a "real sickness." The group then began to talk about the conflict that occurred in the group, but the discussion seemed to become somewhat more abstract and intellectual. It was at this time that the leader intervened and the group's attention then turned to a consideration of his interpretation.

This short burst of seemingly frenzied group activity illustrates how fundamental properties of both the phenomenon of the focal person and of the archetypal paradox of the group as good mother-bad mother. Two members, Candy and Betty, quickly became the sole focus of the group's attention. In their voices, we here a call for new consciousness and the establishment of a new order of things. They challenge and energize the social system to take a serious look at itself in terms of its matriarchal qualities. The independent actions of Candy and Betty, as well as their interactions together, became the focus of the group's attention for most of the 10 minutes illustrated in this example. Observation of this period clearly revealed a sense of polarization and movement within the group. Unfortunately, the group was ending and one has the sense that this attempt to resolve the good mother-bad mother paradox once and for all is truncated by the impending death of the social system.

Focal persons were also identified during periods of group interaction not identified as manifesting an archetypal paradox. This finding raises the possibility that the phenomenon of the focal person may be associated with other dynamics of the social system other than just the resolution of paradox. Neumann's (1954) description of the gradual evolution of consciousness in different cultures suggests a theoretical interpretation of this finding. A major characteristic of individuation and the development of consciousness is the process of separation and differentiation from an undifferentiated matrix. Neumann demonstrates that particular individuals - he calls them "heros" - play an active role in this process. Neumann's observations may be applied to the present study. That is, the focal person may play a similar role in the processes of separation and differentiation that precede the emergence and eventual resolution of an archetypal paradox in a group's social system. Post hoc analysis supports this conjecture as well. A focal person was identified as present during portions of the periods of group interaction which manifest mythologems of separation and differentiation. Taken together with the observation that focal person was present during the resolution of the archetypal paradox, these analysis suggest that the focal person phenomenon is associated with processes of individuation within the social system of the group.

Implications for Practice Small group instruction is one of the most frequently used methods in adult education for structuring the teaching - learning situation (Brookfield, 1986; Knox, 1986). Many of these groups emphasize interaction among the participants and stress the importance of individual and group experiences in the process of learning. A major problem for the adult learning group is the establishment of an environment in which significant, effective learning can occur. The characteristics of this environment include a caring for and acceptance of others, supportiveness, and a responsiveness and receptiveness to individual needs. A learning environment which reflects these attributes is one in which personal transformation is possible (Boyd & Myers, 1988). Such attributes characterize the issues involved in the archetypal paradox reflected in perceptions of the group as both a good mother and a bad mother (Dirkx, 1987).

The results of this study have direct implications for the development of an effective learning environment in instructional groups. Reflected in the focal person - social system transaction is the notion that the focal person acts as a representative of the social system's unconscious concerns. By recognizing influential members as focal persons, facilitators are better able to understand the nature of these concerns. For this reason, facilitators should identify individuals who they believe may be playing the role of focal persons. The focal person may appear to be a potentially destructive phenomenon in the group. Misinterpretation of such activity (e.g. as scapegoating) can lead the facilitator to intervene inappropriately. It may be to the group's benefit, however, to allow the members to work out their conflicts with a particular individual. Rather than focusing on the individual, the facilitator can view the event from the perspective of the group. Questions such as the following should be asked: Why is this happening now? Why has this group chosen to focus on this particular person? What does this person have to offer the group? In their desire to maintain harmonious relationships, facilitators much take care not to inadvertently curtail the work of a focal person who may be challenging and criticizing the status quo of the group. This person is serving the function of mirroring the dominant emotional concerns of the social system. The focal person, however, needs to be distinguished from individuals who are simply seeking the groups attention. In addition, the facilitator should also take care not to be seduced into playing a focal person role. If this were permitted to happen, the group may become increasingly dependent on the designated leader. As a result, individuation would be much more difficult. (Slater, 1966). For example, the group leader should avoid "taking charge" in moments of conflict or uncertainty in the group. Rather, the leader should facilitate the group's handling of the problems by suggesting problems that the group seems to be having, but not to offer solutions. It should be made clear to the members that responsibility for problem-solving rests with the group and not the designated leader.

Influential members who become focal persons play a critical role in the individuation of an adult learning group. Recognition of the dynamics of this phenomenon is essential to facilitating effective and meaningful learning environments in these groups.

* Due to space limitations, the references cited in this article are not included but are available from the author upon request.

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The Fourth R: Relationships in the Adult Basic Education Classroom

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Abstract

Numerous studies have detailed the complicated and frustrating set of psychological, social and cultural factors which characterize adults with low or no literacy skills. Few studies, however, have addressed the issue of how adult basic education (ABE) teachers interpret and make sense of these factors in their students lives, or how they act on that meaning in their interactions with students. This paper reports on the first of a multiphase ethnographic study to better understand the psychosocial orientations of ABE teachers and how these orientations relate to the issues of persistence, success and attrition. Data in phase one were collected from over 100 hours of observation in ABE classrooms. Ethnographic interviews were also conducted with three ABE teachers. Analysis of these data revealed a single psychosocial orientation shared by all three teachers. According to this orientation teachers view psychosocial issues as obstacles to be overcome in the process of literacy acquisition. Teachers structure classroom social interactions to create an empathic environment in which students are encouraged to work for and achieve their academic goals.

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The Fourth R: Relationships in the Adult Basic Education Classroom

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Purpose of the Study and Statement of the Problem. The major purpose of this paper is to discuss the initial phase of a more comprehensive, ethnographic study of Adult Basic Education (ABE) classrooms. The goal of the larger project is to better understand how classroom life in ABE influences such issues as persistence, "success," and attrition. In this initial phase, our research goal was to better understand how ABE teachers view the social and psychological issues in their students' lives and how the teachers relate these issues to the problem of literacy acquisition. Specifically, our work in this phase was guided by three fundamental questions. First, how do ABE teachers describe and make sense of the social and psychological issues that characterize their students? Second, how does the teacher relate these issues to the acquisition of literacy (e.g. are they problems to be overcome or opportunities for change)? Answers to these first two questions form what we have chosen to call, following Kenneth Levine (1986), the teacher's psychosocial "orientation" to the ABE student. Finally, how is the ABE teacher's psychosocial orientation reflected in the patterns of social interaction and relationships that are evident in the classroom?

Background to the Problem. Numerous studies over the last three decades have developed a comprehensive picture of the psychological, social, and cultural factors that characterize the lives of adults with low or no literacy skills. The long litany of such factors has become a familiar, almost tiresome recitation of the problems and difficulties confronting many students in (ABE): debilitating poverty; unemployment or work in marginal jobs; fear and/or rejection of formal educational systems; pernicious mistrust of social institutions; relationship and family problems, including spouse and child abuse; single-parent families (usually the mother); self-perpetuating negative self-concepts and self-defeating views; alcohol and other drug abuse; students who are young to middle aged adults and facing the specter of a lifetime of deprivation and suffering - the list could go on (Anderson & Nemi, 1969; Boyd & Martin, 1984; Mezirow et al, 1975). Such a litany does not characterize all ABE students. A few are relatively well off, in good paying jobs that they like, with stable, warm, and loving families. Our concern here, however, is with those less fortunate, who make up the great majority of ABE students in this country.

Thus, the lives of students or potential students in ABE are typically characterized by a complicated and frustrating set of psychological, social, and cultural factors (hereafter, we refer to these as psychosocial). Some investigators (Boyd & Martin, 1984) take the view that these factors are "problems" that often mitigate the effectiveness of formal educational programs designed to help adult students acquire literacy. Others have focused on the specific ways in which these factors may compromise ABE programs by attempting to determine how such factors influence "persistence" and "attrition." (Boshier, 1973, Wilson, 1980). These studies are limited in helping us understand more clearly how these factors relate to illiteracy and the acquisition of literacy. Are they the result or the cause of adult illiteracy? Do these factors represent "problems" which make the acquisition of literacy more difficult or do they serve to motivate the "illiterate" to take action? Are they "barriers" to learning or can they become "crucibles" in which or through which individual lives and societies may be transformed?

Relatively little research has been conducted on how ABE teachers might answer these questions or how they translate their answers into classroom practice. Their answers constitute what we refer to here as their psychosocial orientation to the ABE student and the problem of literacy acquisition. Psychosocial orientation reflects how ABE teachers understand, interpret, and act upon the social and psychological factors in the lives of their students. It is a meaning-making system that teachers use to help make sense of the lives with which they work. We are using ethnographic method to identify these meaning-making systems of ABE classroom teachers. It is a major premise of the ethnographic method that individuals act towards things in their social environment with meaning and this meaning is derived from or arises out of the social interactions one has with other individuals in that setting (Spradley, 1980). Therefore, the meaning to ABE teachers, as those who help others become literate, of the psychosocial issues which students bring with them to the classroom is partially revealed in the types and qualities of classroom interactions in which the teachers either participate or facilitate. As tutors/researchers in ABE classes, we became increasingly aware of the immediacy, pervasiveness and constancy of psychosocial issues in the students' lives. We then asked, how do teachers make sense of and address these issues in their practices? To address this question, we focused our observations and interviewing on patterns of social relationships and interactions in the ABE classrooms in which we worked.

Methods of Data Collection and Analysis. To understand the "world view" of teachers and students in ABE classrooms, participant observation and the ethnographic interview, adapted from the work of James Spradley was chosen as the preferred methodology for this phase of our research. This methodology enables us to begin to identify and understand what the social setting of the ABE classroom means to each of "the actors" while we worked as volunteer tutors. It was our intention to learn from teachers, students, and other volunteer tutors in ABE. Program administrators identified the sites most in need of volunteers. We began our observations while working as volunteer tutors at two of the suggested locations. After several weeks we expanded our observations to a total of five sites. These additional sites were selected to provide the widest possible range of experience, varying in size, location (from a community college to the annex of a neighborhood church), class time, socio-economic status and ethnicity of the participants. Over 100 hours of field observations were made. Detailed field notes on these observations (both as participants and non-participants) were dictated by each researcher. In addition to informal interviews of students and teachers, formal interviews were completed with five teachers. These 1 1/2 hour interviews were tape recorded and verbatim transcripts prepared. The transcribed field notes and interviews were then analyzed for theme and pattern using an adaptation of methods by Spradley (1979,1980), and Glaser & Strauss (1967). This report focuses on only three teachers and their program sites. Our observations were more limited at the other locations and we felt less confident about the data obtained. Later phases of our research will include additional observations at other sites and interviews with teachers, tutors and program participants.

Findings and Discussion. Due to limits on space, we will provide only summaries of our findings and illustrate these findings with observational and interview material when appropriate. The findings are organized in two sections: 1) Teacher psychosocial orientation; and 2) Patterns of classroom interactions which reflect these orientations.

Teacher Psychosocial Orientation. As one would expect, the sites observed varied in terms of the ethnic background of the students, the proportion of women to men, the size of the class, time of the day of the class, and the presence of other volunteers. Teachers also varied somewhat with respect to their awareness of and response to particular psychosocial issues of their ABE students. The language they used to talk about their students and the way they talk about them were so similar, however, that we have chosen to attribute a single psychosocial orientation to all three - that of the "empathic teacher." This metaphor suggests that the teacher is both responsive to the individual needs of her students and also concerned with academic learning. The empathic teacher is acutely aware of the "troubled lives," as one teacher described them, that most of her students bring to the classroom, the "personal problems" or "personal things" that are part of their "baggage." Although no overall description fits any one student, certain characteristics emerge in the teachers' descriptions as indications of what the empathic teacher attends to in her students.

According to the empathic teacher, the lives of many of her students are marked by financial impoverishment or "economic depression," humiliating unemployment, and a lack of confidence in themselves as students and even as social partners. Many are afraid of formal education settings. Their troubled lives reflect a combination of numerous lifestyle situations and psychological conditions. Their lifestyles are often unstable at best and quite dangerous at the extreme, some even involving brushes with the law and severe drug addiction. Psychologically, many are mistrusting, self-doubting, lacking confidence in their abilities as workers, and confused over value choices and career goals. Expressions of regret over not having stayed in school are quite common. The students seem to find themselves caught in a vicious circle of self-depreciation. Many have unstable home lives, are teen-age mothers, are in the processes of separation or divorce, move frequently, suffer from abuse of drugs or alcohol, and are either victims or dispensers of physical abuse. A theme of deprivation runs through the teachers' descriptions of their students: "My feeling with the adult learner is they haven't belonged to too many places...they have not felt [valuable] at all." "I don't know how many people have cared for those individuals in their life. My hunch is that they have been kicked around quite a bit." Two of the teachers described students who live on the streets. These are "struggling, really struggling kinds of people," with "big survival concerns" that make working with them clearly distinct from working with the lives of elementary school children, experiences that all three of our teachers shared. Our teachers described the majority of their students as having low self-concepts or self-images, which sometimes results in social withdrawal and sometimes in acting out. Rarely, though, do the three teachers experience what they referred to as a "discipline" problem.

The teachers' descriptions of their students are consistent with profiles of the "typical" ABE student developed by others in the field. Their descriptions, however, communicate the degree of empathy the teachers' demonstrate towards their students. Their meaning-making systems help them interpret and understand psychosocial issues in terms of numan pain and suffering. To the empathic teacher, a pregnant, unmarried, young woman student is also a human being experiencing pain and confronting incredible odds in her life. So how does the ABE teacher use this empathic awareness in her role as one who helps others become literate? All three teachers used what we refer to as some form of "bracketing" of the psychosocial issues that are inherent in their students' lives. That is, these issues are seen as related to but distinct from the goals of literacy acquisition. For example, difficulties in a marital relationship influence a student's ability to "study and learn" and must be attended to by the effective ABE teacher. They are not, however, considered intrinsic to the process of literacy acquisition itself. Bracketing is reflected in a number of comments the teachers made in formal interviews about "personal problems." One teacher said, "...sometimes they need to just talk a bit about some of these things and kind of get it out of the way. Then you can steer them back to the learning task." Another: "Somedays I could spend the whole day just listening to those problems...I try to keep a balance between the personal and what their actual goals are here." Balance was a theme reflected by all three teachers. Finally, a third: "I think it is important for them to get some stuff out of the way that might interfere with learning...if they have just freed themselves from stoppage in their lives, they are more open to the learning."

Thus, students' psychosocial social issues are generally viewed by the empathic teacher as "barriers to learning" that must be constructively dealt with and handled before meaningful learning can occur. They make the acquisition of literacy problematic. Unlike some adult education settings in which these issues are considered irrelevant, however, the empathic ABE teacher considers these issues to be quite germane to her role. For these teachers, helping their students "cope with and overcome" these "problems" is a major goal of ABE, but this is different from "learning." To our empathic teacher, learning means "reading, math computations" or "to pass the GED," in other words, academic learning. That this form of learning is the primary focus of ABE is eloquently expressed by one of our teachers, but implicitly shared by the others as well, "When they are wearing a cap and gown and they walk down the aisle and step up on the stage and get their high school diploma - especially for people who had to really work at it - boy, is that exciting!" To our empathic teacher, helping individuals become literate means helping them acquire skills in the three R's.

Classroom Interactions and Relationships. If the empathic teacher considers these issues relevant to her role as an ABE teacher, in what ways does she address these "problems" in the social system of her classroom? The answer to this question seems to be a strong emphasis on a highly individualized form of social interaction and on the importance of the student's academic goals. The most predominant form of social interaction in the classroom is the teacher-individual student interaction. Students largely work alone and either ask or wait for assistance from the teacher. It is the most consistent and most frequently observed form of social interaction and it is within this interaction that the student is most likely to talk "during class." The empathic teacher places a premium on the development of a warm, close, working relationship with her students. Students will then open up and discuss with the teachers "stoppages in their lives" that they seldom explicitly share with each other. Yet, rarely do teacher-student interactions deal with the "personal problems" of the students. When teachers do help in an explicit way, by listening or offering advice, for example, it is usually before class, during break, after class, or on the telephone. Two of the teachers encourage the students to call them at home if they are having difficulties and one describes several of her students as "good friends."

By far, the most common way that we observed the empathic teacher helping the student deal with psychosocial issues was expressed indirectly. All three teachers strongly emphasized the positive aspects of a student's accomplishments and what they have going for them. We saw them continuously and in a warm, genuine fashion, reinforcing and affirming student performance. Implicit in this approach is a belief in the transformative power of academic learning. "...in the majority of them, they gain self-esteem, they get some schooling, they progress, they better themselves up and they achieve and have a better life style than when they came into the program...it's exciting to see that transformation happen." The empathic teacher sees the acquisition of literacy as a psychological force which will help them "cope with" and "overcome" some of the debilitating social and psychological conditions of their lives. The empathic teacher does not minimize or disregard the sometimes severe social and psychological conditions of her students. Rather, they have a strong belief in the power of academic learning and its capacity to lift people up out of their unmitigated suffering.

The empathic teacher appears to assume full responsibility for helping her students cope with their personal difficulties. Student-student interactions rarely explicitly involve "personal problems." Said one teacher, "I can't see them sharing...I don't think that would happen...I just haven't heard it go on in class but, of course, not that much goes on in class, just kind of the relaxation part, 'Hi, how are you? How was your trip?' that sort of thing at the beginning of class." From time to time, students did interact with other students but these interactions were quite casual, spontaneous, and unorganized. As indicated by the last teacher quote, the content of these "visits" usually consisted of friendly teasing and bantering, or somewhat superficial conversations. Occasionally, a "group" discussion would emerge over such topics as foreign countries, historical episodes, or current events. This form of interaction was rare, however, and even somewhat discouraged by two of the teachers. "I'm not comfortable where I would be interacting with the whole class...the noise level gets such that if somebody wants to have a quiet place they cannot have it." Another said, "There have been times when we have had very talkative, boisterous groups and we have to be kind of quiet because this is a quiet place." Again, "Sometimes they chatted too much after break. It was kind of hard getting them focused back on what they were doing... we would have to say 'Whoa, we've got to finish studying here.' " All three teachers said the development of relationships among the students was very important to the program. The purpose of these relationships, however, appeared to be one of contributing to the overall climate of acceptance and relaxation that the teachers were trying to maintain in the classroom. There was little evidence that student-student interactions were used to facilitate socialization, a shared sense of values, or to develop a critical view of their society (Kazemek, 1988; Mezirow et al, 1975).

Conclusion. The three teachers included in this ethnographic study all demonstrated an empathic psychosocial orientation to their ABE students: an acute awareness of the students' psychosocial issues, an articulate understanding of how these issues can block or interfere with learning, and a way of structuring classroom interactions that was consistent with this inter-relationship. It is possible that further research will reveal subtle differences in this particular psychosocial orientation, as well as identify other psychosocial orientations. For the time being, the "empathic teacher" is a way of helping us as researchers/tutors understand how ABE teachers interpret, make sense of, and help with seemingly overwhelming psychosocial problems and life-style difficulties among ABE students within the context of helping them acquire literacy.

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTION IN METACOGNITIVE SKILLS ON THE ADULT LEARNER

by

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The purposes of this study were (a) to determine the levels of metacognition in less-skilled adult readers before and after ten weeks of instruction in metacognitive reading skills, (b) to examine differences in mastery of metacognitive skills determined by years away from secondary education, and (c) to investigate the effect of instruction in metacognitive skills on the improvement of reading comprehension in less-skilled readers.

Participants in this study were 48 adult learners (ages 19-56) enrolled in developmental reading courses at Indiana Vocational Technical College. Students responded to a 20-item, multiple-choice questionnaire, the Adult Index of Reading Awareness (AIRA), specifically formulated by the author to measure levels of metacognition in adult readers. In addition, the usual pre and post comprehension tests were administered both before and after instruction. Students also indicated the number of years they had been away from secondary education. Data were analyzed to determine whether statistically significant relationships existed in regard to each of the research questions.

The following conclusions were drawn from this study: (a) Less-skilled adult readers can be taught the metacognitive reading skills which are acquired intuitively by effective readers. (b) Age is not a factor in increasing levels of metacognition in adults. (c) Instruction in metacognitive reading skills significantly improved comprehension scores of adult readers; therefore, instructors should include this skill instruction in developmental reading courses for adult learners.

THE EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTION IN METACOGNITIVE SKILLS ON THE ADULT LEARNER

In recent years, the concept of metacognition has brought about changes in the thinking of reading researchers. Metacognition, according to Baker and Brown (1984), refers to the knowledge and control a person has over his/her thinking and learning activities, or the process of active control over one's own knowledge. Based on Flavell's (1979) research, Brown, Baker, and others have done much to apply these theories of metacognition to reading.

Brown (1986) breaks metacognition into two parts: knowledge about aspects of the learning process and self-monitoring activities which produce comprehension. In order to utilize metacognitive strategies, the learners must be aware of their thinking as they read. Secondly, they must use this awareness to control their thinking processes to improve their understanding of the text.

As adult learners begin to view the function of the mind as an information processor and to master strategies which have been found to be used by good readers, they too will become skilled readers. Pearson and Dole (1987) suggest that successful students already use these self-monitoring techniques to understand and retain what they have read. Research (see citations in the original study) indicates that these skills may be acquired intuitively by successful readers while they are almost non-existent in less effective readers.

Specific metacognitive reading skills utilized by skilled readers have been identified. Research and experts agree on the benefits of instruction in these metacognitive skills for the less-skilled reader. Studies and expert judgments were reviewed in Chapter Two of the original study which demonstrated advantages of various methods of instruction in metacognitive skills and judged the skills and instruction to be effective in improving students' reading comprehension.

This study determined the levels of metacognition in less-skilled adult learners before and after ten weeks of instruction in metacognitive reading skills, examined differences in mastery of metacognitive skills determined by years away from secondary education, and investigated the effect of instruction in metacognitive skills on the improvement of reading comprehension in less-skilled readers.

Summary of the Study

Participants in this study were 48 adult students (ages 19-56) enrolled in developmental reading courses at Indiana Vocational Technical College on the Muncie campus and at the Anderson site during the Winter and Spring Quarters, 1988-89. Before and after ten weeks of instruction, students responded to a 20 item, multiple choice questionnaire, the Adult Index of Reading Awareness (Appendix A), specifically formulated by the author to measure levels of metacognition in adult readers. In addition, the usual pre and post standardized comprehension tests (Reading Comprehension, Forms A and B, of the College Board, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J., 1979) were administered both before and after instruction. Students were also asked to indicate the number of years they had been away from secondary education.

A summary of the findings with regard to each of the seven research questions investigated follows:

1. Were there significant differences in the levels of metacomprehension skills of adult students as measured by the Adult Index of Reading Awareness before and after 10 weeks of instruction in metacognitive comprehension skills?

2. Were there significant differences in the levels of metacomprehension skills of adult students before instruction in metacognitive skills, as measured by the Adult Index of Reading Awareness, between developmental readers who had graduated from high school within the last four years and those who had been away from secondary education for five years or more?

3. Were there significant differences in the levels of metacomprehension skills of adult students after instruction in metacognitive skills, as measured by the Adult Index of Reading Awareness, between developmental readers who had graduated from high school within the last four years and those who had been away from secondary education for five years or more?

4. Were there significant differences in growth scores of adult students, as measured by subtracting the pre from the post scores on the College Board Reading Comprehension tests, between students who scored high (raw score of 33 and above) on the Adult Index of Reading Awareness and those who did not (32 and below)?

5. Were there significant differences in the levels of comprehension, as measured by the College Board Reading

Comprehension test, before and after 10 weeks of instruction in metacognitive comprehension skills?

6. Were there significant differences in growth scores, as measured by the College Board Reading Comprehension test, between students who had graduated from high school within the last four years and those who had been away from secondary education for five years or more?

7. Were there insights gained through the periodic interviews with selected participants concerning their progress in utilizing metacognitive skills while reading that were not gained from analysis of the quantitative data?

For research question one, there were significant differences between the pre-AIRA and post-AIRA scores at the .000 level of confidence. These results indicated that metacognitive reading awareness as measured by this instrument significantly increased during the ten weeks of reading instruction.

For research questions two and three, statistical treatment of the data indicated that the years away from high school did not significantly affect changes in the students' metacognitive awareness as measured by this instrument. The means of the group who had graduated from high school within the last 4 years and the group who had been away from secondary education for 5 or more years were essentially the same before instruction and essentially the same after instruction. There were no significant differences in either the pre-AIRA scores or post-AIRA scores between the means of the two groups.

For research question four, there were no significant differences in comprehension growth scores between those who scored high in metacognition as measured by the AIRA and those who scored low.

For research question five, data indicated that there was a significant difference at the .000 level of confidence in pre and post comprehension scores. This demonstrated that instruction in metacognitive skills did improve comprehension as measured by the College Board Reading Comprehension test.

For research question six, there were no significant differences in comprehension growth scores between the students who had graduated from high school within the last four years and those who had been away from secondary education for five years or more. Although not statistically significant at the .05 level (significant at .07 level), it should be noted that the students in this sample who had been away from secondary education for five years or more showed more growth in comprehension in the ten week period than those who had graduated from high school within the last four years.

For research question seven, added insights were gained from the interviews that reinforced the findings from the quantitative data. The instructor was able to monitor the students' progress in their acquisition of metacognitive reading skills and their use of these skills in understanding text.

Periodic interviews with five selected members of this population were conducted after the third, seventh and tenth weeks of instruction to monitor the students' progress and gain insight into metacognitive skill development in the adult reader. Participants' responses during the three interview sessions demonstrated progressive growth in the metacognitive reading skills taught during the ten week course. Responses indicated positive reactions to learning the skills and their use to enhance comprehension; however, the students' oral descriptions of thought processes during reading were somewhat vague. Students appeared to have difficulty in describing thinking processes that helped them improve their reading comprehension and retention.

Even though students may have had difficulty expressing the metacognitive processes orally, they used the skills appropriately when reading as evidenced by their improved comprehension scores on the standardized College Board Reading Comprehension test.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from this study:

Metacognitive reading awareness, as measured by the Adult Index of Reading Awareness, significantly increased during the ten weeks of instruction in metacognitive skills in this population of 48 adult developmental readers. Less-skilled adult readers can be taught the metacognitive reading skills which are acquired intuitively by effective readers.

Instruction in metacognitive reading skills significantly improved comprehension scores of adult readers; therefore, reading instructors should include this skill instruction for students in college developmental reading courses.

Educators and learners alike should be aware that years away from high school are not a factor in increasing the levels of metacognition in adults because the years away from secondary education did not significantly affect changes in metacognitive awareness.

Developmental readers may have difficulty in describing their thought processes, yet they are able to use metacognitive skills to increase comprehension.

Recommendations

Recommendations for further research follow:

This study should be replicated with other adult learners who are deficient in reading such as those in GED classes, literacy programs, and college developmental reading courses to determine the validity and reliability of the instrument formulated to measure metacognition in adult readers, the Adult Index of Reading Awareness.

Further studies should investigate which metacognitive reading skills are unique to certain types of reading materials. Technical articles, for example, present special problems for the developmental reader because the less one knows about a topic, the more difficult it is to read. Skimming first, looking for main nouns and verbs, and analyzing text structure may be skills which would help the student master this type of reading. Other types of reading materials which may require unique metacognitive skills inclue newspaper articles, editorials, business letters, memos, biographies, novels, and instructional articles.

Further research should investigate which metacognitive reading skills are most effective in helping the reader reconstruct the author's intended meaning. There may be specific skills which would help in inferencing or "reading between the lines," distinquishing between fact and opinion, and critically reading persuasive or instructional articles.

Replications of this research should be done to include other variables not included in this study such as GED vs. high school diploma, gender, and learning style. Relationships between these variables and the use of metacognitive reading skills should be examined to give adult reading instructors additional insight in meeting the needs of the adult learner.

Further studies should focus on which methods of instruction in metacomprehension skills will eventually lead to transfer to other areas of learning beyond the developmental reading classroom and whether instruction leads to skills usage beyond the instructional period.

The Methodology of Base Christian Communities:

Conscientization within an Ecclesial Context

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Abstract

Comunidades Eclesiales de Base are small groups, usually Catholic, that gather for study, prayer and mutual support. They are common throughout Latin America and have been frequently linked with political and social upheavals. This paper briefly reviews the history of the CEBs. It then examines the methodology that is predominant within the groups. This analysis is based on the literature available in English and Spanish as well as on-sight observations in Cuernavaca, Mexico. A concluding section points to the significance of CEBs for adult educators in the United States.

The Methodology of Base Christian Communities: Conscientization within an Ecclesial Context

An Introduction to Comunidades Eclesiales de Base

Comunidades Eclesiales de Base, or Base Ecclesial Communities, originated within the Brazilian Catholic Church in the mid 1960's. A shortage of priests and religious, and a high degree of ignorance among the laity characterized the Brazilian Church at that time. Church leaders recruited local lay leaders who would gather the people together for study and prayer when the priest was absent. These small groups that usually met once a week became known as comunidades de base. From the very beginning the evangelical work of the base communities was linked with efforts to improve the living conditions of the people. The first few years saw a rapid growth in the comunidades de base throughout Brazil.

In 1968 the Council of Bishops of Latin America, an official church body made up of bishops from throughout Latin America, held its Second General Conference in Medellin, Colombia (CELAM, 1968). At this time the Catholic hierarchy firmly committed itself to working on the side of the poor. Although their experience with the comunidades de base was very limited, the bishops endorsed these groups. The Medellin Conference saw the CEBs as a cell of the church and envisioned the parish as a network of base communities.

The Third General Conference of CELAM met in Puebla Mexico in 1979. At this time the bishops recognized certain potential problems with the base communities but continued their extremely positive support. In order to emphasize the strong link between the base level experience of comunidad and the larger experience of institutional church, the Puebla document refers to them as comunidades eclesiales de base (CEB) and this term has been used consistently ever since (CELAM, 1979). At present CEBs exist throughout Latin America.

So what is a comunidad eclesial de base? A comunidad is a group of people all of whom know each other and relate to one another. The comunidad is eclesial if it is linked with the larger institutional church. These groups are almost exclusively Roman Catholic and are adamant about their ecclesial nature. The term de base is best translated "grassroots". De base implies that the responsibility for the CEBs rests with the people. It implies a low level of structure and organization. It implies commitment to the cause of the poor and marginalized.

The history of the CEBs is interwoven with the history of liberation theology; the two cannot be separated. Liberation theology rejects the dualistic separation of body and soul. It see this separation as a result of Greek philosophical thought and foreign to both Hebrew and Christian scriptures. Announcing the reign of God and denouncing systems of injustice (sin) are two aspects of the same action. Thus the participants of the CEBs have consistently been involved in efforts to overcome injustice, corruption and whatever is de-humanizing in society. In Guatemala, El Salvador and Nicaragua (prior to the Sandinista victory) CEB participants have been routinely labeled as "Communists" and then tortured and murdered.

The methodology of the CEBs is the methodology of "conscientization" as described by Paulo Freire (1970). The base communities originated in the same areas of northern Brazil as Freire's first literacy training efforts (Azevedo, 1987). Freire himself claims that the word "conscientization" was coined during a discussion of Brazilian Catholic. He also points out that it was the efforts of Dom Helder Camara, bishop of Recife, that first established the word on an international level (United States Catholic Conference, 1970). The word itself is used in the Medellin document (CELAM, 1968),although it is not specifically used in Puebla (CELAM, 1979). During the years that Freire worked in Chile he came into contact with a number of CEB leaders, some of whom eventually moved to other countries. His visits to Ivan Illich's Center for Documentation and Culture in Cuernavaca brought him into contact with the Mexican and Central American CEBs. In the training manuals in use throughout Latin America, especially those of Marins (Focus de evangelizacion) and Saravia (1988), the similarity with Freire is obvious.

The Methodology of the CEBs: The Theory

The methodology of the CEBs is commonly described as "to observe, to analyze, to act" (Marins, Focus; Saravia 1988; Zenteno, 1983). In each of these three steps or phases the role of the facilitator is to pose questions. It is stressed throughout the literature that the facilitator is not to play the role of expert. The methodology presumes that God is already active in the life of each individual. The challenge is to uncover the patterns of grace and sin that can be found there.

The first step, to observe, ver, involves the process of describing the reality which the people are living. What are the difficulties, what are the problems? Are these personal problems or are they shared by all in the community. Of course those who are poor and oppressed will begin to see the patterns of oppression to which they are tied.

The second stage is variously titled juzgar (to judge), analizar (to analyze) or reflexionar (to reflect upon). At this stage the participants begin the process of critical reflection upon reality. What are the causes of our misery? The most common tool for this analysis is the Bible: What does God say about this situation? Zenteno gives a characteristic response to these questions.

> The root causes of injustice: the light illumines us and we realize that injustice
> -- is not a matter of bad luck;
> -- it is not because God wills it;
> -- it is not the fault of the poor.
> Then why is there so much injustice? It is because some are masters of the land and industries" (1983, 20).

The Jaunary, 1985, newsletter Pasitos which is published by the CEBs from the Mexican states of Guerrero and Morelos contains the saying: No one is rich except through injustice or through inheriting the fruits of injustice".

Some critics argue that this political and social analysis is outside the domain of church and religion. The response of the CEBs is that they are bringing about the "kingdom of God." Since the will of God is that all men and women live in peace and dignity, that there be no starvation and oppression, then the church, and all of its members, must be involved in this work. They argue that to refrain from political and social analysis is to be unfaithful to the Gospel call.

Almost universally the process of analysis leads to a comdemnation of capitalism. They perceive capitalism as a corrupt system which puts economic control and power into the hands of a few and thus forces the masses to live in poverty. Although they reject the corruption and domination that has been associated with Russian communism, many of the CEB leaders openly call for socialism.

The methodology is incomplete without the third phase, actuar, to act, or transformar, to transform. The base communities reject any form of passive spirituality. They reject efforts to simply "accept" God's will. The challenge of the Christian is to work toward the establishement and fulfillment of the "kingdom of God." Their hero is Moses, a man who stood up to Pharaoh and denounced the Hebrew condition of being enslaved and marginalized.. Their heroes include Archbishop Oscar Romero and the countless men and women who have spoken out against sin and injustice and were murdered for their stand. They criticize evangelical groups from the U.S. as well as the charismatics for not accepting the full demands of the Gospel. As one of their songs says, it is not enough to pray.

How does one go about changing the world. One view sees three possibilities: asistencialismo, reformismo, and liberacion. Assistencialismo can be described as "give the man a taco." It involves focusing on the immediate problem with no analysis of root causes. Reformismo divides society into different sectors. Problems are identified and solutions proposed within that one aspect of society, but without looking at how this one sector interrelates with the rest of society. Liberación involves all of society as a single structure. (This material comes from a lecture by Gerardo Thijssen at a regional conference in Miochatlan, Morelos, on August 6, 1989).

In reviewing the methodology of the CEBs the strong similarities with the thought of Paulo Freire are unmistakable.

1. In both we see the adamant rejection of any form of dualism. The dualism of Freire is the separation of theory and practice. The dualism condemned by the CEB is the separation between faith and political involvement.
2. Both call for structural change. The critism of assistencialism, which is included in the Medellin document, is the same for both Freire and the CEBs. Both are concerned that patterns of injustice be identified and opposed. A slightly different nuance stems from the fact that the CEBs use the word "sin" to describe this situation of injustice and openly justify their course of action in the name of "the kingdom of God."
3. Both emphasize the importance of conscientization in the process of change. Both call for the individual to first become aware of the situations, then to analyze the root causes of injustice, and only then to act. Both respect the authority of each individual to name his or her own reality. The base communities call for participants to read the Scripture at the same time that they analyze reality. Freire (1983) calls for men

and women to read the world at the same time that they read the word.

4. Both recognize that it is only in small groups, and only in dialogue, that people can truly learn.

The Methodology: In practice

Two French missionaries introduced CEBs in Cuernavaca in 1968. Through their efforts the rest of Mexico and parts of Central America first came into contact with the CEBs. Don Sergio Mendez Arceo, Bishop of Cuernavaca for thirty years, supported the work of the CEBs until his retirement in 1981. The result is that the diocese of Cuernavaca is noted throughout Mexico as a center of CEB strength. The following comments are based on observations made in Cuernavaca.

The fruits of the process of conscientization are quite obvious in Cuernavaca, especially among those who have been active for a number of years. One can easily find men and women who have only a few years of formal education but who are very knowledgable about world realities. It is a real treat to sit with these supposedly "illiterate" people and discuss the advantages of different economic structures. Through conferences, courses, retreats and lectures these men and women are quite knowledgable about liberation theology and the methodology of the CEBs. They frequently make reference to the Brazilian, Chilean and Peruvian liberation theologians that they have personally listened to.

One of the problems that seems to be a matter of some concern within the CEBs is how to incorporate new members into established groups. The process of conscientization takes time and only gradually can the individuals free themselves from more primitive patterns of thought. So what should be done with new members? One line of thought is to work with the facilitators so that they can be specially sensitive to the needs of new members. One parish has recently begun setting up "new groups". They realize the different needs of different people and want to assure a smooth beginning for new people. However another leader voiced opposition to this move since the CEBs have traditionally been centered in the local neighborhood and that such a division is artificial. But at least the leaders are very much aware of this issue.

A second related problem centers on facilitators who themselves have been involved for many years in the CEBs, men and women who have benefited from the process of conscientization, but who do not implement the methodology. For Freire and for the CEBs conscientization is a process and a product. It is the way people progress from one level of awareness to another. But it is also the resulting state of consciousness. Some who have been through the process of conscientization seem to have forgotten how they got to where they are now. As they move into leadership positions in other groups, their goal is conscientization. But they are not using the methodology of problem-posing questions. They are not using dialogue. They are not allowing the participants to name their own reality. Instead they are falling back into traditional "banking-education" patterns. Freire argues that liberatory education can only come about through liberatory means. As the group comes to consensus on one or other point, it moves on. But as new members enter, are they free to develop their own analysis or must they simply accept the analysis that the group earlier had come to? The danger is that in the name of conscientization, the leaders are merely inserting a different analysis into the old patterns of banking-education.

Observations

One of the advantages of studying the CEBs is that it offers a way of studying a form of conscientization that is separate from literacy training. Here we see the same basic methodology but in a completely different setting. As adult educators continue to explore the possible implications of Freire's thought beyond the original scope of literacy training the study of the CEBs provides another window for analyzing this methodology.

The CEBs also have implications for all of religious education, whether Catholic or not, whether Latin American or not. For one thing the CEBs call into question the traditional role of the religious educator. But more critical is the new role of scripture and dogma. Now the life experiences of the people become an equally valid source of reflection.

And finally the CEBs provide a window for observing some very important developments in Latin America. Many of these people are coming to name capitalism and "U.S. neo-colonialism" as major forms of oppression in Latin America. These groups are small but their imfluence is far greater than their numbers would indicate. The future relationship of the U.S. with our southern neighbors demands that we come to better understand their new ways of thinking and acting.

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ABSTRACT

The Use of the Lens Model to Describe How Directors of University-Based Continuing Nursing Education Programs Make Decisions Concerning Programmatic Offerings

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The purpose of this study was to describe how Directors of university-based Continuing Nursing Education (CNE) Programs make decisions concerning individual programmatic offerings. The world of the CNE Director is one of environmental uncertainty with respect to departmental funding, competition from other continuing education providers, and the rapidly changing technology in health care. Within this uncertain environment, CNE Directors must make important decisions as to which programmatic offerings to provide. Since most Directors are expected to operate at a break-even point at best, if not at a profit, selecting offerings which will generate adequate income from participant fees is a top priority. There is little help in the literature for the CNE Director who wants to know how to go about making the best choices.

A statistical model of decision making was used (Brunswik's lens model) to capture the decision strategies of the CNE Directors. The model provides rich information concerning how an individual selects, combines, and integrates attributes of the environment to arrive at decisions. The author first identified environmental attributes (cues) which CNE Directors might reasonably be expected to use in making judgments concerning offering suitability. Expert critique of the original attributes was provided by seven CNE Directors from American Nurses' Association accredited university-based programs in seven different states. The author then used the feedback from the experts in deriving the final list of six attributes included in the decision environment. The expert Directors were then asked to rate offering suitability based on these six cues.

The Director's judgmental processes (N=11) were compared with respect to consistency, differential weighting of the cues, and the ways in which they combined cues 5.1 to 9.7. Three cues (needs assessment, anticipated profitability, and offering-organization fit) accounted for the greatest proportion of variability in the Director's judgments. The judgmental structures for most Directors revealed simple linear relationships between the cue usage and the judgment made.

The Use of the Lens Model to Describe How Directors of University-Based Continuing Nursing Education Programs Make Decisions Concerning Programmatic Offerings

The purpose of this study was to describe how Directors of university-based Continuing Nursing Education (CNE) Programs make decisions concerning individual programmatic offerings. The research questions to be addressed were: (1) what are the environmental attributes (cues) used by CNE Directors in making decisions, and (2) in what ways are these cues used in arriving at judgments concerning the likelihood of providing certain offerings? Implications for research and practice are included.

The world of the CNE Director is viewed as one of environmental uncertainty with respect to such things as departmental funding, competition from other continuing education providers, and the rapidly changing technology in health care. Within this uncertain environment CNE Directors must make important decisions as to which offerings to provide. Since most Directors are expected to operate at a break-even point at best, if not at a profit, selecting offerings which will generate adequate income from participant fees is a top priority. There is little help in the literature for the CNE Director who wants to know how to go about making the best choices. The variables that need to be considered and the relationships between and among the variables have not been clearly articulated.

A statistical model of decision making was used (Brunswik's lens model) as a methodology to capture the policy (decision strategies) of the CNE Directors. The model provides rich information concerning how an individual selects, combines, and integrates attributes of the environment to arrive at decisions. It focuses on the process as well as the product of decision making.

The researcher first identified cues which CNE Directors might reasonably be expected to use in making judgments concerning offering suitability. The original list of cues was derived from a literature and experiential review. Expert critique of the original attributes was provided by seven CNE Directors from American Nurses' Association accredited university-based programs in seven different states. The researcher then incorporated the feedback from the experts in deriving the final list of six attributes included in the decision environment: (1) documented need via needs assessment, (2) level of planning required, (3) projected registration, (4) perceived need by nurse influentials, (5) anticipated profitability, and (6) fit between the offering and organization. Each of the attributes is described in Table 1.

Table 1

Description of Attributes

1. Documented need via needs assessment

   Needs assessment may range from a formal full-scale study of the nurses in your service area to less structured, more informal approaches such as verbal or written requests for specific offerings, what is current and popular in your area, and your general perception of what is needed.

2. Level of planning required.

   Refers to the extent of time and energy required to get the offering ready for implementation. Includes such things as getting planning committee together, narrowing topic, identifying content and objectives, securing speakers and facility arrangement.

3. Projected registration.

   Refers to the "potential draw" of an offering.

4. Perceived need by nurse influentials.

   Assume nurse influentials would identify a need for those topics currently being discussed inthe literature, in professional associations, etc. Would most liekly be current, cutting edge, ground breaking topics.

5. Anticipated profitability.

   Direct costs are those associated with such things as marketing, speaker honorarium, travel, audiovisuals, room rental, food and beverages, packets with handouts, letters and certificates.

   Indirect expenses are those associated with such things as staff salary and benefits, office space, and heating/cooling.

   High profitability: Recover all directs, percentage of indirects.

   Moderate profitability: Recover all directs, few if any indirects.

   Low profitability: Do not expect to recover all directs.

Table 1 (con't.)

6. Fit between offering and organization.

Includes such things as determining what your organization is uniquely qualified to provide, expertise of available faculty, and congruence of the offering with your organization's mission. A high degree of fit would indicate that the offering is congruent with your mission and makes use of your organization's expertise.

Next, twelve expert Directors were asked to make a rating of offering suitability based on these six cues. Eleven Directors responded. A sample of one of the 94 computer-generated offering profiles and response scale to which each Director responded appears in Table 2. The 94 scenarios covered every possible combination of cues and each was formatted like the sample provided.

Table 2

Sample Offering Profile

You are asked to rate your likelihood of providing 94 hypothetical continuing education offerings on a scale of 1 (not at all likely) to 7 (very likely). A sample offering follows:

Offering Profile

1. Documented need via needs assessment: High
2. Level of planning required: High
3. Projected registration: Moderate
4. Perceived need by nurse influentials: High
5. Anticipated profitability: Moderate
6. Fit between offering and organization: High

Using the 1 to 7 scale below, indicate your overall likelihood of providing this continuing education offering.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not at all								Very likely

Each Director's judgmental processes were compared with respect to consistency (a measure of uniformity), differential weighting of the cues, and the ways in which cues were combined to arrive at judgments. The consistency index (on a scale of 0 to 10) ranged from 5.1 to 9.7 with the majority of the Directors having a "very good" or "excellent" consistency index. Three cues accounted for the greatest proportion of variability in the Directors' judgments: (1) needs assessment, (2) anticipated profitability, and (3) offering-organization fit.

Cluster analysis, using the Step 0 criterion, indicated that the Directors varied widely in their decision structures. The Director with adequate internal funding, little or no pressure for market expansion, and minimal competition would be expected to manifest a different policy that one with a mandate to generate income and expand services in a competitive environment. Although the Directors weighted information differently, they tended to use simple linear, rather than the more complex quadratic and interactive, judgmental structures in relating the cues to their ratings of offering suitability. Overall, the lens model did a good job of capturing the Directors' policies (R^2 = .78)

The data suggest Directors use three environmental cues most widely and are fairly consistent in the manner in which they combine these cues to make judgments. Two of the three cues weighted most heavily by the Directors (documented need and offering-organization fit) are consistent with what the literature has traditionally endorsed. The major attribute used by decision-makers, according to the literature, is needs assessment. It would appear that if the need exists, we ought to start planning. Clearly, the decision environment is far more complex with many contingent, interactive, and at times contradictory variables to consider. The lens model provides one approach to describe how multiple attributes might be combined to make judgments. The third major cue used, anticipated profitability, has always been a consideration to the adult education administrator, and to some educators, but has not been dealt with as forcefully and openly as it is today.

Certain contextual factors in the Director's specific environment, such a resource base stability and competition, will affect the judgments made. The competitive, resource-strained environment of the CNE Directors necessitates tradeoffs among the salience of the six cues in particular situations. At times profitability may be the single most valent attribute in the environment. For example, if the CNE Department is totally self-supporting and there is no slack in available resources, the Director might make the decision not to provide an offering that will almost surely fail to recover all expenses, even though it might meet a clearly documented need and be highly congruent with the organizational mission. Conversely, there may be times when the Director is willing to accept a certain degree of risk concerning potential financial loss if the need is of great enough magnitude, and the loss is deemed an investment in future offerings. For example, a clearly needed high level theory institute with internationally known speakes might be expected to attract only a select group the first year it is offered and, consequently, a financial loss might reasonably be expected. However, if the Director expects to provide the institute on an annual basis and establish a national reputation for the school in that area, the risk might be worth taking.

This preliminary work contributes to knowledge and practice in several ways. The benefit of policy capturing is a function of the directors' self-awareness of their own choice processes. Most of us are not used to deliberately analyzing our judgments. To the extent that individuals can increase their awareness of the strategies they employ, the more informed their judgments ought to be. By analyzing the cues they use, the ways in which they combined the cues, and their consistency index, Directors ought to be able to improve the quality of their decisions.

Investigation with respect to whether decisions based on certain attributes in given situations actually result in more successful offerings than decisions based on other attributes is needed. This is difficult to determine since casual relationships are ambiguous, but trends and correlations could be drawn. Also, we would not ordinarily provide an offering which we assigned a low rating in terms of anticipated success; thus, we would not observe the outcome of this "non-occurrence".

It would be interesting to ask the Directors which cues they thought they used (espoused) and compare them to the empirically derived feedback (acutal). This feedback could provide valuable insight to the Directors in increasing the understanding of how they actually make decisions about programmatic offerings.

The predicitive validity of each of the CNE Directors can only be determined by actually implementing the offerings. Once the offerings were actually implemented, the relationship between the Director's judgmental policy and the effectiveness of the CNE Department, as well as the success of an individual offering, could be determined. This would be an important contribution to the field of CNE in particular and to adult education in general.

LITERACY AMONG NONINSTITUTIONALIZED OLDER ADULTS

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative study examines the literacy use (reading, writing, and computation) of 42 noninstitutionalized adults over age 60 in relation to other activities and within the context of their past experiences and present environment. Data were gathered through hour-long structured interviews at senior centers and in private residences. The sample consisted of 37 persons who engaged in reading activities, 35 in writing activities, and 34 in computational activities. Most interviewees described their use of literacy skills as a lifelong pursuit and regarded it as one of many leisure-time activities in which they currently engaged. Three persons participating in literacy education classes perceived learning to read as a step toward self-sufficiency and independence. Themes emerging from the study which have implications for practice include the following: (a) Literacy use depended on the complex interaction of skill level, physical ability, prior experience, perceived need, and present attitude; (b) Most activities (including literacy) were strongly related to the activities of early and middle adulthood; participation in new activities was motivated by the need for socialization, fulfilment, and/or independence; and (c) The activities in which this sample of older adults engaged, including literacy activities, seemed related to their particular stages of development in older adulthood.

LITERACY AMONG NONINSTITUTIONALIZED OLDER ADULTS

Introduction

For what purposes do older adults use literacy skills? How are these uses related to other activities in which older adults engage, prior life experiences, and present environments?

A literature review reveals three major problems in studying the function of literacy among older adults: first, conflicting measures and definitions of literacy, most of them designed for younger age groups, have limited applicability to older adults. The use of grade level or grade level equivalency to describe the reading level of an older adult relies on a measure designed for another purpose and applied nearly three-quarters of a century earlier. Second, the research is limited. According to Fisher, "the literature offers consensus that reading makes an important contribution to the well-being of older adults [but] contains disagreements as to the effect of retirement on prior reading habits" (1987, p. 43).

Third, researchers disagree as to whether literacy is necessary for older adults to function properly. Some suggest that "they must be able to read a variety of forms and instructions in order to function at all, to fill out a welfare application form, for example, or to read a doctor's list of recommended foods" (Rigg & Kazemek, 1983, p. 417). Others argue that "the mere fact that an individual has survived for 80 years implies at least some degree of past functional competence" (Courtenay, Stevenson, & Suhart, 1982, p. 344), and that the "lack of basic literacy skills has not deterred many older adults from living their lives as productive successful adults" (Kasworm, 1981, p. 10).

Purpose

The objectives of this research were to (a) develop an understanding of the role of literacy (reading, writing, and computation) among a sample of 42 noninstitutionalized adults over age 60; (b) examine the relationship between literacy and other activities in which these older adults engaged; and (c) analyze their use of literacy skills within the context of their past experiences and present environment.

Methodology

The research design employed a qualitative approach to examine and analyse the experience of the older adults in the sample. Because of its contextual emphasis, its ability to increase understanding of a particular phenomenon, and because no theoretical models exist by which to explain literacy-related behavior among older adults, this approach was judged to be particularly suitable to the research objectives.

Subjects were selected to secure a broad representation of the noninstitutionalized older adult population. The hour-long structured interviews focused on the older adults' life story; their reading, writing, and computational activities; their participation in other activities; and their perceptions of retirement and aging. According to Merriam and Simpson, "an advantage of the interview technique is its effectiveness in surveying special populations and gaining in-depth information. Interviewing is particularly useful in gathering data from 'hard-to-reach' populations....A personal, face-to-face interview is recommended to develop rapport and gain the widest range of data" (1984, p. 62). An analysis of the transcripts of the tape-recorded interviews identified themes and relationships which emerged from the data.

The Sample

Interviews were conducted with 16 men and 26 women in 6 private residences and 5 senior centers. Ages ranged from 61 to 84; the median age for the sample was 72. All of the men and 21 of the women had been employed outside the home during most of their adulthood; all were ambulatory and lived independently, either alone or with other family members in homes or apartments.

The level of educational attainment ranged from 3rd grade (N = 1) to a college degree (N = 3); the average educational level was 10th grade, consistent with the national average for persons over 65. Eleven interviewees had completed 8th grade, and 13 had high school diplomas. Factors which influenced level of educational attainment included their enjoyment of school, their family's economic status, the unavailability of secondary education opportunities in many rural communities, and parental attitudes that secondary education was unnecessary, especially for girls.

The sample consisted of 37 persons who engaged in reading activities, 35 who engaged in writing activities, and 34 who engaged in computational activities. The average reader attended 11 years of school; for persons engaged in limited reading activity, the average was 6 years of school.

Reading

Reading served similar functions for 37 of those interviewed. At one level it served as a vital information source: all readers read newspapers, newsmagazines, and other magazines and printed material in areas where they had particular interest, such as crafts, antiques, homemaking, etc. Since the persons interviewed were independent and self-sufficient to varying degrees, they also engaged in the reading activities necessary to self-maintenance, the management of a household, travelling, shopping, corresponding, etc. Reading was the mechanism through which contact was maintained with their respective environments.

At a second level, reading was mentioned as one of several leisure-time activities in which interviewees engaged: persons read novels, biographies, historical fiction and nonfiction, science fiction, and mysteries for the sheer pleasure of reading. The distinction between these two levels is not unlike that made by Havighurst who described the two basic purposes of education as "instrumental" ("for a goal which lies outside and beyond the act of education") and "expressive" ("for a goal which lies within the act of learning") (1964, pp. 17-18). Nearly all the readers engaged in both instrumental and expressive reading.

Many persons indicated that they read more now than before they retired, mainly because they have the time to do so. Researchers have disagreed widely about the impact of retirement on reading habits: Romani (1973), for example, found that retired persons spent more leisure time reading than prior to retirement, and that retirement could stimulate new reading patterns.

Pfeiffer and Davis found that the time spent in reading was significantly greater in the older age groups than in their entire sample (1971). On the other hand, Sharon (1973) found that young adults tended to read more than older persons, while the very old spent the least amount of time reading.

Most readers described reading as a lifelong activity, a habit dating to earlier years which now they had the time and the self-permission to enjoy; only one person listed it as a new activity which she had learned since retirement. According to Kingston (1979), the reading behavior of the aged reflected and related closely to previous reading habits, education, and socioeconomic status. One person spoke of a time when she had difficulty reading because her father thought it a waste of time. Nearly all of those interviewed described retirement as a time when one could do as and when they wished. That independence clearly included the time and opportunity to read.

For some, reading was viewed as just one among many activities in which they engaged; in fact, many described reading as the most enjoyable of their activities. For others, reading had become a substitute for more physically demanding activities: one woman said that as her mobility decreased because of "bad knees," she read more than ever. Another said, "If I've got nothing to do, I read." Several indicated that they did not read as much as they would like because of visual difficulties.

The popularity of reading among this sample of older adults contrasted sharply with the desire frequently expressed for more socializing activities in order to deal with the problem of loneliness. Most described reading as a solitary activity, essentially self-directed, with few social benefits accruing from it. Only one reader mentioned participation in any group activity related to or encouraging reading - a book review club. Another woman said she felt proud to have taken basic education classes recently; now she was able to read aloud to herself because she had noone with whom to talk. Yet, despite its solitary nature, reading seemed to provide the companionship to help some older adults face the loneliness they described.

Limited Reading Activity

In contrast to those for whom reading was an integral part of an active lifestyle, five members of the sample described limited reading activities. Three of the five participated in literacy education classes at a local learning center. One expressed an interest to improve his reading ability in order to "communicate better with other people" and to "understand the things that are going on." They spoke of hoping to enjoy reading more, especially newspapers, cowboy stories, comics, puzzles, and the Bible. All saw learning to read as a step toward self-sufficiency and independence; in fact, one described having others read for her as an invasion of her privacy: "There are some things in everybody's life that you can't tell to other people because they are not dependable. Then they'll tell it to everyone else..."

Two interviewees identified themselves as nonreaders. One said she did not read currently because of her eyesight, and that she never had read very much because it did not interest her. Another said he did no reading because it was "too painful;" he also said that he had no interest in learning about current events.

Two of the five described an active lifestyle; the other three participated in fewer activities than average. All but one spoke of financial problems or loneliness related to retirement. One of this group said he was bored and wished he were still working; another did odd jobs to earn spending money.

Arithmetic

Most of the persons who were active readers also used computational skills. Nearly all maintained their own financial accounts, ranging from keeping a checkbook to managing an investment portfolio. Most counted the change they received after making a purchase; card players used computational skills to keep score. Two persons tested their own computational skills at stores by calculating the total cost of their purchases "in their head." Another filed her own income tax forms, and another served as the bookkeeper for the Senior Center. Approximately 20% of the readers and 80% of the nonreaders did not use computational skills, either because they were "not good at it," preferred not to use them, or had no need to use computational skills.

Writing

Writing as an activity was popular with many in this sample of older adults: only four of the nonreaders and two of the readers did not write; two readers had writing skills but were hampered in their activity by arthritis. The most popular use of writing was correspondence: letters and greeting cards served as important communication links to families and friends. Common uses of writing also included writing checks, catalog orders, shopping lists, and list of chores; several enjoyed crossword puzzles. Approximately one-third of the sample engaged in some form of creative writing or writing for general consumption such as poetry; book reviews; articles for newsletters of organizations to which they belonged; golfing news and articles publicizing the activities of the senior center for the local newspaper; and scripts for a local radio show about older adulthood. One person was writing the history of yacht racing.

Activities

Persons interviewed participated in a broad range of activities which included, in addition to those literacy activities described above, arts and crafts, physical fitness, volunteering, home care and maintenance, travelling, and games, especially cards. Most of these activities had been lifetime avocations; a comparatively small number had been acquired since retirement. By comparison, only a few of the readers were inactive: some said that because of their age and/or physical condition they had no interest in new activities; others had withdrawn from activities in which they had previously participated.

Factors which seemed to influence the choice of activities included (a) the physical demands of the activity in comparison with a person's physical well-being; for example, several indicated they had given up bowling because of arthritis; (b) continuity with activities in which the person had previously engaged; preference for particular activities in most instances was developed prior to the older adult years; (c) time available; activities perceived to be time consuming, such as reading, were possible to pursue in retirement because more time was available; (d) the potential for fulfilment of personal needs, such as the need for socialization or the need to make a contribution to the well-being of others; most new activities in which persons participated resulted from their desire to escape loneliness by volunteering or visiting a senior center.

Several took classes and participated in various educational activities. Three were currently enrolled in basic education classes and one had recently completed a basic education course. One spoke of the changes which had occurred in her life as the result of learning to weave at age 65; this experience helped her develop friendships which had been absent through most of her life. Another attended a creative writing class which helped her view retirement (heretofore a terrible experience) in a new way and develop new values to support a new lifestyle; from there she went on to learn to play the piano. A woman, active in craft activities throughout her life was currently taking a sewing course; after a trip to China, she took a course about that nation. She said she used education to help her understand her experience.

Two men articulated what many inferred: one said, "I made up my mind that being retired wasn't going to mean that I just sit down and wait until I was going to die." The other added, "The day isn't long enough now." In sharp contrast, some spoke of the boredom which they felt during these years, and several believed that they were too old to learn anything new.

Implications for Practice

The following themes which have direct implications for practice emerged from the interviews:

1. Literacy among this population depended on the following components: (a) skill or comprehension level, (b) physical ability, (c) prior experience, (d) perceived need, and (e) present attitude. Because of the complex interaction among these components, use of literacy skills appears as an integral component of a lifestyle rather than the particular result of earlier education. Addressing the literacy needs of older adults requires sensitivity to the totality of a person's experience. Reading, for example, does not stand alone: it is related to other activities, to a level of independence, to relationships, to all aspects of one's life. Similarly, nonreaders had developed a lifestyle which minimized the need to use literacy skills.

2. Most activities of older adults (including literacy) were strongly related to the activities of early and middle adulthood as well as their retirement goals. Participation in new activities, including educational activities, was usually motivated by the need for socialization, fulfilment, and independence. Successful programs designed for older adults will respond to these needs.

3. The activities in which this sample of older adults engaged, including literacy activities, seemed related to their particular stages of development in older adulthood: some epitomized the activity theory whereas others were in the process of withdrawing. Programs designed for older adults should be targeted to particular phases of their development.

REFERENCES WILL BE SUPPLIED UPON REQUEST.

A COMPARISON OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF LECTURE, CASE STUDY AND VIDEO TAPE AS INSERVICE POLICE TRAINING METHODS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research study was to determine the relative effectiveness of three inservice police training methods including traditional lecture, case study, and videotape. A total of 238 inservice officers from 47 police agencies throughout Kansas participated in the experiment. Because attendance was voluntary it was not possible to randomly assign subjects to treatment groups.

The main dependent variable, learning, was measured by an instrument constructed especially for this study. A 76-question test instrument was subsequently reduced to 36 valid questions using a committee of experts, two pilot tests and computer item analysis. This test was administered on a pre-post basis to the three treatment groups and as a test-retest to the control group.

The Instructional Development and Effectiveness Assessment (IDEA) form was used to measure reactions of participants to the three training methods. Special sets of items were designated to assess (a) self-rated progress on objectives of the seminar, (b) perceptions of key characteristics of each method, and (c) reactions to each method.

Fifteen demographic variables were examined. These demographic variables were distributed in a similar way across the control and experimental groups, minimizing their threat to the internal validity of the study.

Posttest learning scores were analyzed using pretest scores as a covariate. The adjusted means for all treatment groups were significantly higher than those for the control group. There was no statistically significant difference among the three groups.

Analysis of variance revealed that the videotape group consistently reported less favorable reactions on IDEA than did subjects in the other two groups. The major findings of this study suggest that police officers made significant gains in learning as a function of the inservice training.

Subjects in this study were posttested one year later in a follow up study to investigate long-term learning retention. The case study group decayed only minimally on the learning retention measure over the 1-year period; retention decreased significantly for the lecture group nearly reaching the pretest level. Although not significantly, the videotape group also decayed.

A COMPARISON OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF LECTURE, CASE STUDY AND VIDEO TAPE AS INSERVICE POLICE TRAINING METHODS

Many studies have been conducted comparing the effectiveness of teaching methods in education, military training, nursing, and other areas of study (Krumboltz & Farquhar, 1957; Watts, 1977; Mahaffie, Gee, & Larmer, 1978; Hayter, 1979;Russell & Bryant, 1987). Surprisingly, no studies have been conducted to determine how police officers, as adults, learn.

The purpose of this research project was to determine the effectiveness of three inservice police training methods. The initial phase of this study began with the development of a 76-question test instrument to measure learning based on the objectives of the seminar curriculum. The curriculum and test instrument were reviewed by a panel of experts who reduced the number of questions to 50. The remaining 50 questions were pilot-tested on two different groups of in-service police officers. After each pilot test, the results were subjected to a computer item analysis. From these analyses, a final test instrument of 36 items was developed. This test instrument was administered on a pre-post basis to the three treatment groups. The control group was tested twice, with a two-week interval, before taking the seminar. In addition, the Instructional Development and Effectiveness Assessment (IDEA) form was used to measure experimental subjects' reactions to the three training methods. Items 21 through 25 were used to assess participant self-ratings of progress for the three treatment groups. Items 31 through 34 were used to assess whether participants perceived the seminar's features differently. Items 35, 37 and 38 were used to assess student ratings of attitudes toward the seminar experience.

During the late fall of 1986, the Kansas State University Police Department sponsored four, 2-day seminars on the Use of Deadly Force as a vehicle for this study. In September of 1986 invitations to attend the seminars were mailed to every law enforcement agency in the State. A total of 238 in-service officers responded and participated in the four training sessions.

There were three major objectives of this study:

1. To determine if inservice training resulted in increased knowledge about the use of force.
2. To determine if there was a significant advantage to the lecture, case study, or videotape method of providing inservice training.
3. To determine if the participants had different reactions to the three inservice training methods.

The research design used for this study was the non-equivalent, control group design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Because the samples could not be selected at random, there was a possibility that they could differ on demographic characteristics which were related to the criterion measures. To explore this possibility, 15 demographic items were analyzed. No significant relationships were found between pretest scores and age, gender, type of agency, size of agency, tenure, previous military service, agency assignment, hours of recruit training, involvement with suspects in shooting incidents, prior Use of Force training, or reason for attending the seminar were found. Significant differences were found, however, in level of education, position in agency, and personal acquaintance with an officer shot in the line of duty. However, the demographic variables which were significantly related to knowledge were distributed proportionately among the four groups (control and three treatment), reducing the possibility that a selection maturation interaction would confound the findings.

The analysis of covariance was used to determine if posttest means for the three treatment groups and the control group differed significantly after they were "adjusted" for differences in pretest scores. All treatment groups had significantly higher adjusted posttest mean scores than were obtained by the control group on the posttest. There was no significant difference among the three treatment groups; adjusted mean scores were 27.5, 27.2, and 27.0 for the case study group, the videotape group, and the lecture group respectively.

Analysis of variance revealed significant differences among group mean scores calculated from the IDEA ratings. These scores were intended to summarize student participant ratings of: (a) their progress on the seminar's objectives; (b) their perceptions of the seminar's features; and (c) their attitudes toward the treatment provided. On all measures, the Tukey post hoc showed the videotape group mean was significantly lower than means for the other two treatment groups. In every instance, the low ratings of the videotape group suggested poor motivation and/or dissatisfaction with the seminar.

CONCLUSIONS

The chief conclusions which were drawn from this study were:

1. There was a significant gain in knowledge about use of force as a result of the inservice training programs. Posttest means for all three treatment groups were substantially higher than pretest means, while the control group showed no gain over the three week interval prior to

the seminar. Furthermore, when the retest scores were adjusted for initial scores, significant differences were found favoring each of the experimental groups over the control group.

2. In terms of knowledge about the use of force, the three inservice techniques were equally effective. Means on the posttest, adjusted for differences in the pretest, were less than 0.5 points apart on the 36-item examination.

3. Participants reacted much less favorably to the videotape method than to the lecture or case study methods. This was true for all three types of reactions (self-rated progress on the seminar's objectives; perceived characteristics of the seminar; and attitudes toward the training method). No significant differences were found between the lecture group and the case study group in ratings of the procedure.

IMPLICATIONS

Findings from this study have implications for those concerned with inservice training for police officers, for those who provide such training, and for those who evaluate the effectiveness of training programs.

a. Inservice Training. The most probable reason why the experimental groups made gains which the control group didn't was that they were exposed to a systematic educational program. Local officials can feel reassured that, at least in this instance, sending officers for training had a significant, measurable impact on their level of knowledge.

b. Educators/Trainers. The finding that the three treatment groups all learned about the same amount was consistent with the general literature on the topic. As long as the criterion consists largely of "recall" information, there are many equally valuable ways of communicating this information. If one wishes to establish the differential impact of alternative methods, it will probably be necessary to include criteria which reflect the theoretical advantages of each method.

Regardless of the amount of measurable learning, participants expressed some definite preferences with respect to learning conditions. Personal involvement and the opportunity to interact with an acknowledged expert were high on the list of desirable characteristics. To maintain the interest and enthusiasm of participants, trainers should be aware of these preferences.

FOLLOW UP STUDY

Subjects in this study were posttested again during the first week of December 1987 in a 1-year follow up study to investigate long-term learning retention among inservice police officers. Because there was no statistically significant difference among treatment group means in the previous study, indicating all groups learned equally well, the researcher was better able to infer that one group's learning decayed more than another as a result of the teaching techniques used in the training.

A 4x3 two-factor repeated measures ANOVA was performed on the pre- and posttest learning scores. The Tukey HSD procedure was computed to ascertain wherein the significant differences resided. The Tukey post hoc revealed significant differences between Group 3, case study, Group 4, videotape and Group 1, lecture with means of 27.33, 26.75 and 23.07, respectively.

There was considerable decay in long-term memory retention over the 1-year period of the follow up study for the lecture group. There was some decay in all treatment groups. The case study group decayed least followed by videotape and lecture.

The finding the case study group experienced only minimal decay over the 1-year period is supported by the literature (Gagne & White, 1978, and Mackenzie & White, 1981), who argued that all effective learning involved the student generating meaning for new information or experience by relating it to prior knowledge; the student must be active in processing new material.

Although the decrease in mean scores for the videotape group over the 1-year period of this study indicates greater learning decay for videotape than for the case study group, the decrease was not statistically significant. Lecture group mean scores decreased significantly, nearly reaching the pretest level.

The conclusion based on the results of this study showed case study to be a superior training method, followed by videotape and lecture in presenting Use of Deadly Force training programs to inservice police officers. The finding that lecture was least durable as a training technique is consistent with Goldstein's (1986) and Wexley and Latham's (1981) suggestions that lecture has been criticized as not being a viable training and development technique. The shortcomings of this technique are numerous.

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IDENTIFYING APPROPRIATE ADULT EDUCATOR PRACTICES: BELIEFS, FEELINGS AND BEHAVIORS

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ABSTRACT:

The literature of adult education provides a broad spectrum of characteristics necessary for adult educators to practice in this emerging field. It was the purpose of this study to take some major steps toward developing an assessment instrument indicating the beliefs, feelings and behaviors adult educators need to possess. The instrument emphasizes the teacher's personal and contextual identification, actions and competencies in the classroom, and philosophical beliefs for guiding practice. Two major groups totaling six hundred adult educators were used to test and refine the instrument: faculty in an Adult Basic Education/General Education Development/English as a Second Language Program in Chicago City Colleges (CCC); and, faculty at the St. Louis Community College (SLCC). The instrument was developed into a Likert type scale. Each questions became "How frequently do you...?" The answer for each item had four choices: Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often. The factors analysis for the CCC group from top rank in descending order were:

Factors	Mean
Teacher empathy with learners	3.79
Teacher trust of learners	3.53
Planning and delivery of instruction	3.50
Accommodating learner uniqueness	3.28
Teacher insensitivity toward learners	2.86
Learner-centered learning processes (experience-based learning techniques)	2.75
Teacher-centered learning processes	1.89

The factor analysis for the SLCC group from top rank in descending order were:

Factors	Mean
Sensitivity to learner differences	3.82
Teacher trust of learners	3.45
Teacher-centered learning process	3.10
Experience-based learning techniques	2.70
Teacher insensitivity toward learners	2.42

IDENTIFYING APPROPRIATE ADULT EDUCATOR PRACTICES: BELIEFS, FEELINGS AND BEHAVIORS

The literature of adult education provides a broad spectrum of characteristics necessary for adult educators to practice in this emerging field. On the one hand, emphasis is placed on the adult teacher identifying her/himself as a co-learner with other learners (Gessner, 1956). On the other hand, focus is placed upon the actions of the adult teacher in the conduct of the classroom activities (Conti, 1982). Still another point of view emphasizes competencies necessary for adult educators (Knowles, 1980). Again, an additional opposing view "debunks" competencies in favor of philosophical knowledge as being necessary (Collins, 1980). Although there is hardly a question that each of these views has some basic important considerations, each appears to leave a gap in necessary abilities for adult educators.

However, when taken together, these ideas have some elements of cohesion. For a teacher to identify her/himself as a co-learner with other learners connects solidly with a context which is dynamic. Emphasizing important actions of a teacher in conducting classroom activities indicates that the behavior of a teacher is crucial in relationship to the learning process. The competencies of the teacher could generate various feelings in her/himself or the learners depending on the level of functioning. And philosophical knowledge undergirds beliefs which in turn guide professional practice. This scope of characteristics necessary for adult educators to practice in this emerging field would include: contextual and personal identification, actions in the classroom, competencies for functioning, and philosophical beliefs for guiding practice.

The Research Question

This study was initiated to answer the following question: what beliefs, feelings and behaviors do adult educators need to possess to practice in the emerging field of adult education? The purpose was to take some major steps toward developing an assessment instrument.

Background

Over a period of two decades this author has been drawing upon the adult education literature, observing the practice of others in the field as well as developing and testing ideas of his own through practice and research that arises out of practice which will work in the field and help to answer the above research question. In 1987, out of the known practice of a variety of adult educators, the rich literature in the field as well as his own adult education practice relating to a variety of subject matters and his own research, he developed a model which identified five major elements as being necessary for an adult educator to practice in the field. The five elements are: beliefs and notions about adult learners; perceptions concerning qualities of effective teachers of adults; phases and sequences of the adult learning process; teaching tips and adult learning techniques; and, implementing the prepared plan.

Methodology-First Round

To achieve balance in developing the original instrument, five negative and five positive questions were generated for each of the five major elements above, for a total of fifty questions.

When the fifty items were developed, it became apparent that there was not a clear separation of each of the five elements. There were ideas from all elements that overlapped into other elements. Also, it became clear that some of the ideas needed to be categorized as beliefs, others as feelings and still others as behaviors. They were not all just action or learning, or competencies or philosophical knowledge.

However, this then became problematic in that the original five categories did not hold if the inventory were to emerge into a useful instrument. The best organization of the items at this stage of development was to divide the items between positive and negative characteristics. The result became thirty-three positive and seventeen negative characteristics.

The instrument was developed into a Likert type scale. Each question became "How frequently do you...?" The answer for each item had four choices: Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often; with the numerical value of 1,2,3,4 given respectively.

The opportunity came to test the instrument with nearly six hundred adult educators. Three hundred eighty-nine of those are adult learning specialist (ALSP) instructors in one major institution. They completed these forms voluntarily. These instructors teach in the Adult Basic Education (ABE), General Educational Development (GED), and/or the English as a Second Language (ESL) programs at the Chicago City Colleges. These programs are conducted both on and off all the campuses in the system.

After the data was generated the positive characteristics measured to 3.3 on the 4.0 scale and the negative characteristics measured a 2.2 on the 4.0 scale. Although this indicated a general direction desirable more for the positive and less for the negative characteristics to be scoring on the scale, the meaning of these positive and negative measures seemed somewhat vague unless one looked at each item separately.

Findings-First Round

As a result, it was decided at this point to conduct a factor analysis on the data gathered from the three hundred eighty nine adult educators involved with teaching at the Chicago City Colleges. Seven factors emerged from that analysis as follows:

Figure I

	Factors	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.	Planning and Delivery of Instruction	3.50	0.39
2.	Learner-Centered Learning Processes (experience-based learning techniques)	2.75	0.51
3.	Teacher Centered Learning Processes	1.89	0.53
4.	Teacher Empathy With Learners	3.79	0.29
5.	Teacher Insensitivity Toward Learners	2.86	0.58
6.	Accommodating Learner Uniqueness	3.28	0.24
7.	Teacher Trust of Learners	3.53	0.46

A quick observation from this profile of adult educators shows that this group is mainly concerned with benefit to the learners rather than themselves. This kind of professional attitude would be the desire of any organization wishing to serve people well.

The top ranking item for each factor was:

Figure II

Factor — Item-Asking "How Frequently Do You...?"

1. Integrate Teaching Techniques with Subject Matter Content;
2. Conduct Role Plays;
3. Believe that your teaching skills are as refined as they can be;
4. Express appreciation to learners who actively participate;
5. Have difficulty getting your point across to learners;
6. Expect and accept learner frustration as they grapple with problems; and,
7. Demonstrate specific skills for learners.

It must be noted that in the factor analysis the highest scoring item for each factor was positively correlated with the factor with the exception of factor number seven. The highest scoring item for factor seven was negatively correlated with the factor. In fact, although there were three items that clustered in factor seven analysis on teacher trust of learners, the first two items were negatively correlated and the third item positively correlated with the factor. That positive item was: How frequently do you purposefully communicate to learners that each is uniquely important?

Methodology - Second Round

Following the factor analysis, eleven out of the total of fifty items were dropped because they did not fit into any of the seven factors. It was felt that for the sake of instrument brevity as well as maintaining the strength, validity and integrity of each factor, no more than five items were necessary for any one factor. To further strengthen and refine the instrument each factor that had more than five items, the lower scoring items were eliminated. Any items negatively correlated with a factor it was clustered with were eliminated. There was one item negatively correlated with factor six and two items negatively correlated with factor seven. This is indicated as follows:

Figure III

Factor	Total Items	Positively Correlated Items	Negatively Correlated Items	Items Dropped	Items Remaining
1	9	9	0	4	5
2	9	9	0	4	5
3	6	6	0	1	5
4	5	5	0	0	5
5	3	3	0	0	3
6	4	3	1	0	3
7	3	1	2	0	1

New items were developed to strengthen factors five, six, and seven. It was felt that for each new item needed to survive a subsequent factor analysis process, a minimum of two and a desired three items needed to be developed and included. Consequently, the first four factors needed no additional items. Factors five and six each had four new items developed and added. Factor seven had ten new items added, the revised assessment form then had a total of forty-five items.

The process by which the new items were added was as follows: for each item needed, three statements/questions were developed relating to that category. For instance, for factor number five, "Teacher insensitivity toward learners" there were two new items needed. Hence, six items were developed. The items were then submitted to members of a 1989 winter semester graduate adult education course entitled "Foundations of Adult Education" at the University of Missouri-St. Louis. These people represent beginning as well as advanced levels of practice in the adult education field. They were asked if each statement/question reflected a clear focus on the particular factor in question. Answers were to be "Yes" or "No." Any items that received more than two "No" responses were eliminated.

The second group which was available to use the assessment instrument was two hundred ten of the teachers/faculty members at the St. Louis Community College (SLCC). The people teach in the regular daytime program and teach in a wide variety of subject matter areas. There are three campuses within the SLCC system.

Findings-Second Round

A factor analysis was conducted with the data which was gathered with this group of two hundred ten teachers. Five factors emerged as follows:

Figure IV

	Factors	Mean	Standard Deviation
1.	Teacher trust of learners	3.45	0.66
2.	Experience-based learning techniques	2.70	0.82
3.	Teacher insensitivity toward learners	2.42	0.68
4.	Sensitivity to learner differences	3.82	0.46
5.	Teacher-centered learning process	3.10	0.79

A quick observation from this profile of community college teachers (who in some sense are adult educators) shows the group as being very sensitive toward learners and possesses high trust in the learners. There is a strong showing that these teachers think it important that they are in control of the teaching/learning process.

The top ranking item for each factor was:

Figure V

Factor	Item-Asking "How Frequently Do You...?"
1.	Promote positive self esteem in learners;
2.	Use buzz groups (learners grouped together to process information from lectures);
3.	Have difficulty with the amount of time learners need to grasp various concepts;
4.	Establish instructional objectives, and,
5.	Believe that your teaching skills are as refined as they can be.

Following the factor analysis, six out of the total of forty-five items were dropped because they did not fit into any of the five factors. Again, any items negatively correlated with a factor it was clustered with were eliminated. There was only one item which was negatively correlated with any factor and that was number four.

Summary and Applications of the Findings to Practice

It was the purpose of this study to take some major steps toward developing an assessment instrument to answer the following question: What beliefs, feelings and behaviors do adult educators need to possess to practice in the emerging field of adult education? Some steps toward that goal include: emphasis on the teacher's personal and contextual identification, actions in the classroom, competencies in the classroom, and philosophical beliefs for guiding practice; and developing items to be included, gathering data from specific groups of adult educators, conducting two factor analyses, along with refining the instrument between the two analyses.

The instrument is still in the process of being developed, refined and improved. Presently it is in a useable form available from the author, and has some clear and beneficial factors. Discussions have been held by the first organization using it, to use it in a dual function: as a screening device to identify adult educators they wish to have as part of their organization; and as a basis for identifying inservice education needs for the teachers who are weak on one or more of the factors.

Other institutions in a number of states have already agreed to use the instrument with adult educators for the above mentioned purposes. Some are considering other uses for the instrument. One state wide institution in another state has committed to use the refined instrument in a major research study which would inquire if there are any links connecting particular items and/or factors in the instrument with programs effective in retaining participants and their passing rates or test scores.

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USE OF APPROPRIATE LEARNING TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING ADULT RESIDENTS IN A CORRECTIONAL SETTING

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ABSTRACT:

There is a high degree of educational need in a correctional setting. In one state, 60% of the total number incarcerated are unable to read and write. The increase of that population is of some concern. In 1925, state and federal prisons held 79 people per one-hundred thousand inmates, and in 1985 the number had risen to 201 per one-hundred thousand.

If adult education has as one of its goals a contribution toward enhancing the quality of individual lives and society in general, then the way in which correctional residents are taught is important.

During the 1989 winter semester, a three semester hour credit course was conducted with residents of The Missouri Eastern Correctional Center to train tutors of adult literacy. Participatory adult training techniques were employed extensively. The students were nearing the completion of a Bachelor's Degree program provided by the University of Missouri-St. Louis. The intent of the penal system in providing this course was that the resident/students could give back something to the society that had provided the opportunity to improve their lives.

Further research is needed to help guide future direction of this course within the degree program. Questions could include: Should this approach be extended to other courses in the program? Will this teaching/learning approach help residents overcome recidivism now and when they are released?

USE OF APPROPRIATE LEARNING TECHNIQUES FOR TEACHING ADULT RESIDENTS IN A CORRECTIONAL SETTING

Description of the concern

There is a high degree of educational need in a correctional setting. In one state, 60% of the total number in the correctional setting are unable to read and write. The ratio would not be very different in other states. The increase of that population is of some concern. In 1925, state and federal prisons held 79 people per one-hundred thousand population, and in 1985 the number rose to 201 per one-hundred thousand.

If rehabilitation and reduction of recidivism (repeat offenders) are goals of incarceration, then appropriate learning techniques for teaching adult residents in a correctional setting is one important concern of practitioners. Some states have recently discussed the possibility of ruling that no resident shall be released without knowing how to read and write. Other proposals for accomplishing this suggest that added to job training might be a gradual increase in personal responsibilities coupled with institutional monitoring of social behavior through progressively less security consciousness.

Adult education programs in correctional settings are on the increase. They range all the way from general adult educational offerings to Associates in Arts, and Bachelor of Arts, or Bachelor of Science Degrees, as well as training for becoming literacy tutors or for new jobs. With this increase, an important question needs to be raised, and that is, whether the theories we adult educators espouse regarding learner participation and involvement in determining the direction of his or her educational program is applicable with this type of student and in this particular setting.

Importance of the concern

If adult education has as one of its goals, the enhancement of the quality of an individual's life as well as the quality of life in society in general, then the way in which correctional residents are taught, (the theory which guides practice as well as the practice itself) is an important contributor to its accomplishment and accompanying results.

Axandorb (1989), a prison inmate, has suggested that prisons damage people. The innate characteristics of punishment are such as to cause pain, a sense of loss and deprivation. The prison subculture is a by-product or informal reaction to punishment and serves as a coping mechanism to both passively and actively offset the punitive measures of pain, loss and deprivation. The inmate subculture is a product of institutionalization itself, so that the institutionalization as a means of rehabilitation is self-defeating from the outset.

Furthermore, he suggests that over time, inmates become more and more responsive to the normative demands of this subculture and succumb more and more to the adaptation of anti-social roles as a consequence. Whatever rehabilitation there is occurs in spite of the system. He states, "The chilling fact is that nine out of ten persons incarcerated will sooner or later be returned to the community and many to the same community in which they committed their crime."

One other prison inmate states that instructors must accept the adult, (inmate) learner as a unique individual with problems, feelings, and the capacity to change. Also, that the teacher should not be judgmental about persons who are poor, or rich, have past records, or their appearance and moral values.

Adult educators who have witnessed much of what inmate Mr. Axandorb has expressed, would not find difficulty being sold on the importance of the concern. When that nine out of ten get out, it could be hoped that adult educators have done their bit for society and families, and especially done it well.

New approaches tried

During the 1989 winter semester of University of Missouri-St. Louis, a three semester hour undergraduate course for credit entitled: Teaching the Adult Learner Basic Literacy Skills, was conducted for residents of Missouri Eastern Correctional Center, (MECC) Pacific, Missouri. The objective of the course was to train individuals to tutor others in literacy, focusing on the adult as a learner. Seven thousand two hundred of the state's 12,000 prison population or 60% is functionally illiterate if not completely unable to read or write. It was felt that the twenty-three people enrolled in the course the first time it was offered could help make an impact on this situation as a result of their participation. Participatory adult learning techniques were employed extensively, including the use of self-directed learning, and learning contracts. The course met weekly on Saturday morning for two and one half hours over a period of sixteen weeks. The authors were instructors of the course.

All of the participants were nearing the completion of a Bachelor's Degree program in sociology provided by the University of Missouri St. Louis. The adult learning course was offered as an elective in their degree program, which was the first four year degree program ever offered in this state of Missouri for inmates of a penal facility.

The intention of the State Department of Corrections in providing the course cited above, was to allow the residents who became participants a chance to give something of value back to the society which had provided the opportunity for them to achieve a college education. This four year degree program was made possible through federal grant funds and state correctional education budget allocations. The participants would, through the tutor training course be able to help other residents learn to read and write, thus enabling them to have a better self image, and eventually become responsible citizens.

The students were particularly keen on continuing the pedagogical training methods with which they were accustomed. The men raised a hue and cry when told they were going to do their studies in a different manner. However, after two sessions they began to see the value of the method and began responding positively to the adult education approach.

It was with amazing rapidity that the students picked up the adult learning concepts. For the most part, they did much more quickly than their graduate school counterparts on the campus. Because their own learning rested on their efforts and not the instructor, their own feeling of responsibility was enhanced. Insights among the men were increased, and personal motivation and investment in the outcome of their learning was multiplied.

On an evaluation scale range from twenty to one hundred points, following are the items evaluated and their scores given by the participants in the class:

	ITEM	SCORE
1.	Instructors respect learners' capacity for self-directed learning.	100.00
2.	Instructors value learners' experience as resource for learning.	97.33
3.	Instructors take risks to experiment with new teaching approaches.	94.67
4.	Instructors show skill and commitment in learner involvement.	97.33
5.	Instructors establish warm, empathic relationship with learners.	97.33
6.	Instructors see world of learning through learners' eyes and are good listeners.	92.00
7.	Instructors help learners assume responsibility for own learning.	97.33
8.	Instructors provide motivational learning climate.	89.33
9.	Instructors show concerns for learner needs and aspirations.	97.33
10.	Instructors demonstrate flexibility in content, use of techniques, and learning process speed.	94.67
11.	Course learning objectives are clear.	84.00
12.	Course program objectives are clear.	86.67
13.	Course content organized relevant to learned needs and manageable for learning.	86.67
14.	Amount of coursework appropriate for credit received.	92.00
	AVERAGE	93.40

When asked how they could use what they had learned in the course, most answered that they would help others become more assured in accomplishing their own goals.

Following are some statements about the impact of this experience upon individual learners as a person:

- Now I think there are very few things I could not learn;
- We are each individuals and have separate learning talents;
- The performance of goals was exceptional and the total learning experience priceless;
- I've collected and increased my confidence tremendously in dealing with adult learners;

- It helped me look at and coordinate my inner and outer self;
- I like the greater degree of responsibility for my own learning accomplishments this course gave me; and,
- I seemed to have learned more and retained more because I picked out learning objectives that were of interest to me.

Relating to conference theme of research-to-practice linkage

This is only one experience set within a larger context. Further research needs to be conducted to help guide the future direction of this course within the degree program. The opportunity has been offered to teach the course again. Some questions for further inquiry would include: Can or should this approach be extended to other courses in the degree program? Will this teaching/learning approach help residents to overcome recidivism (returning to old criminal habits)? What pitfalls need to be avoided in using this approach? Could some other avenues be devised and used that could be even more beneficial? What are the criteria which should be applied in comparing the result(s) of using this approach and other more traditional college teaching methods?

Opinions and conjectures regarding this concern

It is the authors' contention that the normal pedagogical style of instruction lends itself sometimes to just plain memorization, with the resultant lack of deep learning that usually follows. Cheating is sometimes bred by this traditional method at least in the world outside the prison. Creating more anti-social behavior than exists is not the sought after goal.

Observing the inmates demonstrated an improved self-image, a better understanding of individual responsibility, and a heightened determination to increase their learnings for themselves, instead of trying to prove how smart they were in order to impress the other students and the instructors.

A follow up program is essential for a comparative study. As these inmate/students leave their controlled environment for outside residence, monitoring their activities and observing some results pro or con within a short time frame of five years from release date, may begin to indicate their life direction. Such a small group does not furnish enough data for a complete study, but based on subsequent releases of more students taking similar programs, distinct patterns could emerge.

Harold Cushman, MECC education supervisor who indicated in 1986 that the day of the first graduation ceremony of this program would be the ultimate for him, asserted at the first graduation ceremony in 1989 that the program is fantastic and perhaps the greatest accomplishment of his professional career. He said "Higher educational opportunities can give an inmate much more than a degree. We have so many people that are in here because they have no mechanism for evaluation, they acted on emotion or instinct or in the heat of the moment. Education can turn that around. Whether they use their degree to earn a living or not, what we are doing is educating them to the point that they can evaluate themselves" (Dillon, 1987). Lloyd Hargens, participant in the adult learner course, and valedictorian of the 1989 graduating class said, "If rehabilitation is a realistic goal, education will be its touchstone." (Fitzmaurice, 1989)

If this be the case, then it could move one to dedicate to the 1989 graduating class of MECC, the poetic words of PATHLIGHT:

As Evening Shadows fall across the towers
pointing fingers through the yard,
time seems to bend in strange ways.

Dinner, rocky sleep, then eat some grits
whole thing starts again.

Morning sun shadows fall across the towers,
pointing fingers out side the wire,
giving hints of hope where hope is thin.

Library on the hill, are you where my hope is?
are you, repository of knowledge my last chance?
With your books clutched to my chest, please help me.
Enter my mind and guide me out and away.
Please give me a Life somewhere else.

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Effects of Educational/Orientation and Psychological Type of University Faculty on Adult Learner Satisfaction

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to determine whether university faculty's understanding of and concern for the unique ways adults engage in learning affect student satisfaction with the learning experience. Further, this study investigates whether certain personality characteristics of faculty, which relate to their preferred teaching style, affect student satisfaction. The study thus attempts to extend current research on the impact of instructor's orientation and approach on adult learners' attitudes.

Hadley's Educational Orientation Questionnaire was administered to 38 faculty of the College of Arts and Sciences at an urban university to measure their educational orientation (andragogical or pedagogical). The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator was administered to the same faculty in order to determine their preferred teaching styles and related personality characteristics.

This study focuses on the effects of the two variables - educational orientation and psychological type - on adult learner satisfaction. "Satisfaction" is operationally defined as mean score on a standardized program evaluation completed by adult students in these faculty's non-credit continuing education classes.

A Multiple Factor Analysis of Variance will yield information on significance of the main effects of the two independent variables and their interaction effects. Preliminary results will be reported at the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference on October 12, 1989.

Effects of Educational Orientation and Psychological Type of University Faculty on Adult Learner Satisfaction

I. Problem

Colleges and universities are responding to the surge of interest in adult learners by offering continuing education programs, both on campus and in the workplace.

University faculty thus find themselves facing a new population of students with unique needs, concerns, and expectations. Educators generally acknowledge that the characteristics of these "nontraditional" students necessitate a different classroom approach (Beder and Darkenwald, 1982). However, there is evidence of a discrepancy between self-report and actual observation of altered teaching behaviors to accommodate adult students (Gorham, 1985).

The purpose of this study is to determine whether faculty's understanding of and concern for the unique ways adults engage in learning affect student satisfaction with the learning experience. Further, this study investigates whether certain personality characteristics of faculty, which relate to their preferred teaching style, affect student satisfaction. The study thus attempts to extend current research on the impact of instructors' orientation and approach on adult learners' attitudes.

Two conceptual models seem relevant to the problem: Knowles' concept of andragogy and Jung's theory of psychological type.

A. Andragogy

The concept of andragogy is based on several assumptions:

(1) Adults are increasingly self-directed and independent in their learning.
(2) Adults develop a reservoir of experience that becomes a resource for learning.
(3) Adult learning is active, problem-centered and instrumental.
(4) Adults are oriented toward life tasks, so that their learning must have immediate application.
(5) Motivation to learn is primarily by internal incentives.

Adults enter educational programs with purposefulness, conviction and enthusiasm. In short, adults are eminently teachable, so long as they perceive the subject matter as having relevance to their goals and problems (Knowles, 1975).

The andragogical model as explicated by Malcolm Knowles and others is not concerned so much with praxis as with attitude. It is based on valuing "the learner's life experiences and need to be self-directed." (Knowles, 1984). Thus the andragogical model views the teacher as a manager or facilitator of learning who respects and welcomes students' contributions to the learning process.

The educator is responsible for providing and maintaining a supportive climate in the classroom. Mature adults, as self-directed learners, resist learning under conditions that are incongruent with their self-esteem as autonomous individuals. Since adults in the workplace see themselves as responsible and independent, they have a psychological need to be treated with respect. Thus, motivation to learn is increased in a collaborative learning environment where responsibility for planning is shared by teacher and learner. The focus in an andragogical orientation is on process rather than content, a focus which may be new for typical university faculty.

B. Psychological Type

Consistent with the theory of andragogy is the concept of psychological type as postulated by Carl Jung (1971) and made practical through the work of Isabel Briggs Myers.

This theory emphasizes the importance of educators' recognizing that they and their students come to the classroom with different "mental habits." These habits form patterns in the way they prefer to perceive and make judgments about the world. The patterns can be classified into "psychological types." A person's "type" is an integrated pattern of four dimensions, expressed as a four-letter formula, which includes:

a. perception processes: sensing and intuition
b. judgment processes: thinking and feeling
c. direction of energy: extraversion and introversion
d. attitude toward the outer world: judging and perceiving (Lawrence, 1982).

Data are available on the psychological type for various populations. The general adult population is E (65%), S (70%), T (60% of males) or F (60% of females), J (55%) (Lawrence, 1982). Groups of middle managers and supervisors also usually come out ESTJ or ISTJ, as do groups of adult learners.

College and university faculty typically come out I (52%), N (65%), T (50%), J (63%) (Lawrence, 1982). Introverted intuitive types enjoy working with global ideas. They are independent, critical, sometimes stubborn, and refuse to be limited by facts. They prefer working with theories and open-ended situations. They enjoy learning by reading.

Clearly there is a poor fit between most higher education faculty and adult learners in terms of type preferences. The implication of such a mismatch is that extraverted, sensing type adult learners may respond poorly to the standard instructional behaviors of introverted, intuitive type faculty. This may be reflected in measures of student satisfaction with the course.

II. Hypothesis

There are two independent variables of interest here: educational orientation of faculty and psychological type of faculty. The study focuses on the effects of these two variables on adult learner satisfaction. Expressed in null form, the hypotheses are:

H^1: If university faculty who conduct continuing education programs have an andragogical orientation, their adult learners will express no difference in level of satisfaction on a program evaluation instrument from the faculty who have a pedagogical orientation.

H^2: If university faculty who conduct continuing education programs have the same psychological type profile as their adult learners, then the adult learners will not express a difference in level of satisfaction on a program evaluation instrument than if the faculty have a different psychological type profile.

H^3: The effect of faculty's educational orientation will not interact with the effect of their psychological type profile such that adult learner satisfaction ratings will be highest for faculty with both an andragogical orientation and a type profile that matches the learners'.

III. Methodology

Subjects for this study are faculty of the College of Arts and Sciences at an urban public university who participate in non-credit programs sponsored by the Continuing Education-Extension Division. Programs may have been conducted on campus or at the contracting client companies' sites. The following data were collected from the subjects:

1. Score on Hadley's Educational Orientation Questionnaire (EOQ)
2. Profile on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)
3. Mean score on the "Instructor" section of the Continuing Education-Extension Non-Credit Program Evaluation.

Data will be analyzed by means of a 2x8 Multiple Factor Analysis of Variance. The first independent variable, educational orientation, will have two levels: andragogical and pedagogical. The second independent variable, profile on the MBTI, will have eight levels: extraverted, introverted, sensing, intuition, thinking, feeling, judging, and perceiving types. The dependent variable will be mean score on the "instructor" section of the standardized non-credit program evaluation.

This design will yield information on significance of the main effects of the two independent variables and their interaction effects, or significance of the way one independent variable changes as the other independent variable changes.

IV. Stage of the Research

Seventy faculty were asked to participate in this study. To date, data have been collected from 38 subjects. They are currently being analyzed. Preliminary findings and conclusions will be reported at the Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education on October 12, 1989. For copies of materials to be distributed at the session, write to: Geraldine Hynes, School of Business Administration, University of Missouri-St. Louis, 8001 Natural Bridge Road, St. Louis, MO. 63121, or telephone (314) 553-6282. A bibliography is also available upon request.

V. Applications of the Findings to Practice

University faculty are typically given limited opportunities to gain insight into their educational orientation. There is a need for administration-sponsored training programs aimed at developing an andragogical approach to the classroom. The current research should shed new light on the relationship between faculty orientation and adult learner satisfaction. Further, it will provide a model for an institutional effort to allow faculty to assess themselves as "content-oriented" or "student-oriented." Using instruments such as Hadley's EOQ and the MBTI could be a beginning point in thinking about one's own teaching in relationship to adult students. Institutions that encourage faculty to improve their effectiveness by self-assessment of this kind can have a major effect on enrollment and retention patterns.

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The May 7 Cadre School

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Abstract

The May 7 Cadre School (1968--1978) was an educational institute for cadre education during the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976)--the period when China was undergoing great turbulence. This study describes the purposes and practice of the May 7 Cadre School, and probes the education at the May 7 Cadre School from its philosophical foundation, psychological process, its probable effects on China's economical development, and its value as an "educational revolution." This study critically analyzes the May 7 Cadre School concerning the above issues. The purpose of this study is to bring to light the hidden curriculum of the so-called educational revolution, and in doing so, to explore what role the May 7 Cadre School played in Chinese society during the Cultural Revolution.

The study resulted in the following findings. First, the philosophical foundation for the May 7 Cadre School was one that did not meet the needs of the country. Second, the curriculum of the school was not organized around sound adult education principles. Third, from a microcosmic view, participants of the May 7 Cadre School wasted several years of their life; from a macrocosmic view, China's economic development appears to have suffered great damage. Finally, under the banner of "educational revolution," education was used to implement indoctrination, obscurantism, and even political persecution. The utimate purpose of the May 7 Cadre School was to enforce social control.

The conclusion of this study is that the falures of the May 7 Cadre School showed the need of cadre education to be organized and implemented so as to meet the needs of Chinese society.

THE MAY 7 CADRE[1] SCHOOL

The May 7 Cadre School existed from 1968 to approximately 1978, the period when China was undergoing the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976). The May 7 Cadre School was once a large and prosperous entity in China. Though an accurate number is not available as to how many cadre schools there once were, at one time they could be found all over China, in "every province, municipality, and autonomous region, as well as many special administrative regions, counties, and cities."[2] It is estimated that during the Cultural Revolution, more than 90 percent of the cadres had been "reeducated" at May 7 cadre schools.

Browsing through the articles reporting on May 7 cadre schools during the Cultural Revolution, only praises were seen. For instance, "The cadres have gained fruitful achievements in the realization of the ideological revolutionization"; "The May 7 Cadre School is an innovative kind of cadre school. It is innovative because it contains more communist elements"; and "Large number of cadres go to May 7 cadre schools. Through going down to manual labor and relearning, their ideology changed deeply,... The May 7 Cadre School is showing its great vitality."[3]

However, the post-Cultural Revolution view of the May 7 Cadre School is contradictory to previous claims. The May 7 Cadre School was regarded as a place to exclude political dissidence and execute prosecution.

What, then, is a more accurate picture of the May 7 Cadre School? As the major part of cadre education during the Cultural Revolution, what role did it play in Chinese society? The general purposes of this study were (1) to describe and analyze what actually happened at the May 7 Cadre School; and (2) to explore what role cadre education played in Chinese society during the Cultural Revolution.

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[1] The definition of cadre, according to Lin Jixiang and Zhou Maosheng, "refers to administrative or managerial personnel as well as to other professional and technical personnel who maintain the status of civic servants within the following working bodies: the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party (CCCCP), the National People's Congress, the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference (CPPCC), and public or government organizations at all levels above village and town or subdistricts in cities. The term also refers to those leading personnel within enterprises and businesses owned by the public. The staff within primary and secondary schools are also referred to as cadres."--Lin, Jixiang & Zhou, Maosheng (1988). Cadre Education. In Wang, Maorong et al. (Eds.), China: Lessons from Practice, (p. 45). New Directions for Continuing Education (Vol. 37). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.

[2] The 'May 7' Cadre School. (1972, May). Peking Review, p. 5. Reprinted in Peter J. Seybolt (Ed.). (1973). Revolutionary Education in China/Documents and Commentary (p. 83). New York: International Arts and Sciences Press, Inc.

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General Description

The name of the May 7 Cadre School came from Mao's May 7 Directive. In May 7, 1966, when the prelude of the Cultural Revolution was heralding the forthcoming political hurricane, Mao wrote a letter to Lin Biao, then the chairman of the Central Committee of Military Affairs of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP). In this letter, Mao wrote:

> ...the army should be a big school....In this school, our army should study politics and military affairs, raise its educational level, and also engage in agriculture and side occupations and run small and medium sized factories... Our army should also do mass work.... Also our army should always be ready to participate in the struggles to criticize and repudiate the bourgeoisie in the cultural revolution.... Those working in Party and government organizations should do the same.[4]

The first May 7 Cadre School--Liuho May 7 Cadre School was established on May 7, 1968. Following the educational pattern given by Mao in the May 7 Directive, the cadres at Liuho May 7 Cadre School were involved in political study, manual labor, and so on. Liuho May 7 Cadre School started with 140 cadres; by the second year, there were 600 members, most of them cadres of organizations directly under the old provincial Party Committee and the old provincial People's Council, together with the cadres of the new provincial Revolutionary Committee. Six years later, in 1974, over 6,000 cadres had been trained in this cadre school.[5]

The participants of the May 7 Cadre School were *cadres*. There were several characteristics of them. First, they came from a wide range of professions. There were those who worked in the Party and government organizations, cultural, educational and hygienic front, universities and research institutes, and those who were administrators or technicians of industries.

Second, the participants' political and social status varied with their positions before the Cultural Revolution. There were senior cadres such as former leaders of the State Council and chiefs of ministries, and ordinary cadres who had just graduated from schools and were recently assigned to a position. Many of the Chinese leaders today, such as Zhao Ziyang, Hu Yaobang, and Li Peng were participants in May 7 cadre schools.

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[4] The 'May 7' Cadre School. (1972, May 12). *Peking Review*, p. 5.

[5] (1968, October 5; 1969, May 7; 1974, January 3; 1974, October 6). *People's Daily*.

Further, the participants had different labels in the May 7 Cadre School. Basically, they fell into two categories: those who were labeled "cadres who committed mistakes, but could be reeducated" and those who were labeled "incorrigible" and "class enemies." The first category was thought to have committed mistakes unconsciously. Since all cadres worked for the old Party and governmental bureaucracy, or received education from schools which were run by this machinery, and this machinery was under the control of the "representatives of the bourgeoisie who sneaked into the Party, government and the army as well as the cultural circles," "counter-revolutionary revisionists," and "capitalist-roaders," most cadres were eligible for this category. The second category was constituted by people who had possessed a higher rank, or position, or who had been successful before the Cultural Revolution. People who had a higher level of education, came from a "black" family background, or had foreign connections, and who had different opinions from the Party and the government (or merely from their leaders) were also in this category.

Within cadre schools, there were school departments (xiao bu), under which there were divisions of production, propaganda and education, personnel and rear-services. One particular division at the May 7 School was for special cases (zhuan an zu). Its responsibility was to examine the seriousness of a cadre's case of misconduct, and to investigate the cadres whose history was thought "not clear or clean." The participants were established into regiments, battalions, companies, and squads, as if in the army.

The purpose of the May 7 Cadre School was to train cadres in rotation in order to transform their ideology and to raise their political consciousness. The period for cadres to stay at cadre schools was generally six months to two or three years, depending on the job needs in the city, and participants' "behavior" at the cadre school. However, training in rotation did not apply to those who were labeled "class enemies." Many of them stayed at the May 7 Cadre School till the end of the Cultural Revolution.

Two specific aspects were observed in accomplishing ideological transformation and consciousness raising. They were ideological study and manual labor. In most May 7 cadre schools, the participants devoted half a day to ideological study and another half to manual labor. The materials employed in ideological study fell into three categories: (1) works of "great teachers of the proletariat revolutionary cause," Marx, Engels, Lenin, Stalin, and Mao; (2) documents conveying the gist of the Cultural Revolution from the central government; and (3) newspapers elaborating on these documents and presenting models for ideological reforming. The manual labor basically referred to agricultural work, with some small industrial work. For example, Yang, a former head of the Transportation Department of a county, collected manure from place to place; Qiao was a veteran cadre who worked in an office in city before the Cultural Revolution. At the May 7 Cadre School, his became a shepherd; a member of the leading group of Xian Industrial and Business Management Bureau was in charge of a brick kiln in the cadre school.[6]

Why the May 7 Cadre School Failed

When the Cultural Revolution was over in 1976, the May 7 Cadre School withered away within one or two years. Today, it was generally regarded as a failure in education in China for several reasons.

First, the May 7 Cadre School failed to establish a valid philosophical foundation. Education was used for persecution and social control at the May 7 Cadre School. Second, it failed to bring about positive psychological changes. Learners were not involved as an organic part of education. In fact, they were excluded from the process of planning and managing their own education. In this sense, there was little to recommend the psychological approaches involved in the education at the May 7 Cadre School.

Third, the effect of the May 7 Cadre School on China's economic development was destructive rather than constructive. Cadres from all ranks of society were sent to schools for "ideological remolding." These individuals spent their most productive years doing nothing they had been trained to do; for the Chinese nation, these schools caused tremendous damage in all spheres, especially in economic development.

Finally, the hidden curriculum behind the May 7 Cadre School was that under the banner of education, social control was perhaps the primary goal.

Lessons from the Failure of the May 7 Cadre School

As an old Chinese proverb says: "failure is the mother of success," a nation's progress depends to a large extent on its ability to learn from its past, especially from its failures. The failure of the May 7 Cadre School led the CCP to redefine the purpose of cadre education, which is now to meet the needs of China's socialist modernization program for competent personnel. Several objectives of cadre education clearly state that all 21 million cadres in the country will be released from work on rotation to receive training ranging from one or two months to three years so as to raise their level of competence in Marxist theory, professional knowledge, science and cultural levels as well as managerial skills.[7] Flexibility and diversity are now observed in designing curriculum for cadre education. Instead of a single form of cadre school, more avenues have been opened, such as Party schools, sparetime schools, as well as cadre school.

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[6] (1971, October 29). People's Daily; (1972, May 8). New China Monthly, p. 99; (1976, May 7). People's Daily.

[7] Lu, Yun. (1984, April 2). Training Cadres on a Large Scale. Beijing Review, pp. 24-25.

Summary

China's cadre education since the revolution of 1949 experienced three stages: the first stage, from the founding of the new China to the rise of the Cultural Revolution (1949-1966); the second stage, the Cultural Revolution period (1966-1976); and the third stage, the post-Cultural Revolution period, 1976 to the present. A brief summary of the characteristics of these three stages would be that, at the first stage, cadre education was always vacillating between emphasis on professional knowledge and skills needed for China's economic construction, and ideological remolding for consolidating the dictatorship. Cadre education at this stage was strongly doctrinaire and dogmatic.[8] At the second stage, the Cultural Revolution period, cadre education, through the form of the May 7 Cadre School, became a tool to practice social control. This has been discussed in this study. Cadre education at the present stage features pragmatism. Ideological remolding has vanished from the present curriculum of cadre education. Study of Marxism-Leninism is restricted to academic areas or made available to those who are theory-oriented cadres, such as persons working in propaganda.

An appraisal of the effectiveness of this new cadre education system is still too early. As Mao said, "The only measure for the truth is practice." Practice proved that the May 7 Cadre School had many failures. Practice will also prove the virtues and vices of the new cadre education system.

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[8] For more information, see Liu, Alan P. L. (1986). How China is Ruled. University of California: Prentice-Hall, Inc.; Barnett, A. D. (1967). Cadres, Bureaucracy, and Political Power in Communist China. New York and London: Columbia University Press, 1967.

A Media Selection Model and Pre-Adoption Evaluation Instrument for Distance Education Media

by

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Abstract

There has been increasing interest in the use of telecourses by post-secondary institutions The literature does not show that telecourses are of equal quality. Since it likely that more video will be used, it must be used judiciously and correctly. Most educators have not learned how to use the media, and this has resulted in media not being used effectively as a learning resource.

Telecourses are being selected by inexperienced personnel without benefit of using appropriate media selection evaluation procedures because an evaluation model or evaluation instrument does not exist. Evaluation is critical to ensure that quality materials are selected which meet course objectives.

This study created a media selection model for distance education media and a model based pre-adoption evaluation instrument to be used by personnel involved in the selection of distance education media. Both are based on evaluative criteria which consider the interaction of a combination of media and factors related to the course, video programs, and the learner. The instrument asks for specific conclusions and is short enough to be of practical use. The evaluating criteria are applied to nine areas; educational objectives, instructional design, content,textbook, faculty guide, student study guide, computer software, video, and cost.

A Media Selection Model and Pre-Adoption Evaluation Instrument for Distance Education Media

A major movement in training and higher education is the use of telecommunications technologies to teach learners at a distance from classes. The video programming which has evolved replaces class lectures and is augmented by textbooks, study guides, audio tapes, and computer software. There is a tremendous need in industry and education for on-going training and professional development (Bates 1986). Universities working in conjunction with business are a way in which high quality training and education can be provided at reasonable cost (Bates 1986).

The use of video programming has increased and hundreds of programs augmented by print materials are offered for training, graduate or undergraduate credit (Brey 1988). In most content areas, many programs or several telecourses are available (Brey 1988) so that adopters should evaluate programs before selection (Zigerell 1986).

The Corporation for Public Broadcasting (1980) found two media decision points: (1) to use video as a form of education; and (2) to offer a particular series. The 1980 CPB study showed that decisions on specific programming are usually based on an examination of availability, quality, perceived needs, potential enrollments, and costs (CPB 1980). The 1986 CPB (ELRA 1986) study showed that the prime selection criteria was the course's ability to attract new students. The second and third criteria were respectively, course content quality (a method to evaluate quality was not reported), and the ability to provide new resources or approaches. The findings were consistent with Blackburn and Ging, who added the suitability of the level of difficulty and curricular adaptability (Dirr 1986). Dirr reported that these elements are important to adoption; 1) low cost; 2) long lead time; 3) familiar and credible information source; 4) faculty and administrators with positive attitudes about video; and 5) a history of successful innovation adoption.

Kressel (1986) notes that quality and evaluation continues to plague selection personnel; material is being "cranked out" (pp. 4-6) everywhere from obscure garage-top attics to high-tech production facilities. While the problems are apparent, the solutions are not according to Kressel. She urges a forum to disseminate effective media selection models and a debate over quality criteria and evaluation methods. She warns that without evaluation and quality control, distance education will fail.

Since the decision to adopt usually rests with administrators and faculty (Zigerell 1986; Brey 1988) who are unlikely to have media expertise, there is a need to train them in media selection and utilization (Heidt 1978; Meierhenry 1981; Knowles 1983; Kressel, 1986; Mayor & Dirr 1986; Hezel 1987; Holt 1989; Portway 1989).

Programming is being selected without benefit of appropriate evaluation procedures (Bates 1974; Kressel 1986) because an empirically based evaluation instrument does not exist (Teague 1981; Reiser & Gagne 1983; Kressel 1986) which details the educational criteria which should be met. The decision to adopt is not grounded in media selection methods and as a result programming may be adopted from which optimal learning by the student does not occur (Knowles 1983) because of unplanned and ineffective instruction (Gueulette 1988).

Educational literature is flooded with instruments which have been developed for use in evaluating learning resources and instructional materials (Teague 1981). There is agreement in the literature that media should be evaluated; however there is little agreement on what constitutes good evaluation (Tanzman & Dunn 1971; Armstrong 1973; EPIE 1973; Bates 1974; NEA 1976; Bergeson 1976; Komoski 1977; Sive 1978; Hewitt 1980, 1982; Kressel 1986; Mayor & Dirr 1986).

Kressel asks, "What is a credit-worthy telecourse vs. slick television?" and "What is sound education vs. entertainment? (p. 6, 1986)." She concludes that there is no evaluation procedure to use which ensures that students will learn and thus no current answer to the question, "Is it sound education worthy of credit?" There is a need for a decision making strategy (Bates 1987).

Improved media selection procedures can change the situation (Sive 1978, 1983; Niemi 1971; Teague 1981). An adoption process which includes an evaluation instrument based on media selection methods would ensure that adopters evaluate media using the best available media selection methods to help ensure the selection of resources that will make genuine contributions to student learning (Teague 1981). Teague suggests that an evaluation instrument should contain specific criteria and force the evaluator to apply the criteria to the resources. Teague performed an analysis of evaluation forms and concluded that several factors tend to limit their effective post-secondary use (1981). Most forms: 1) are for use with elementary and secondary materials; 2) evaluate one medium; 3) ask for general conclusions; 4) include no reference to evaluative criteria; 5) ask for excessive amounts of non-evaluative information; and 6) are too detailed and lengthy.

Reiser and Gagne (1983) reviewed nine media selection models. They conclude that information concerning the models' usefulness was limited due to the rarity of finding detailed information about situations in which models were employed and limited empirical evidence about the models' relative merits. Bates (1980) suggests that efforts to demonstrate linkages between type of media and teaching objectives are fruitless. Media research does not provide a clear direction for evaluators as it does not address how components interact to produce learning outcomes where there are differences in learners, instructional treatments, and content. He states that the impact of television depends on a combination of media and factors related to the program's organization, video programs, and learners. Existing models are more useful to designers than to adopters who are not selecting media for production but are faced with a pre-produced package of media to be adopted or rejected.

Method. A modified two-round Delphi technique was used to develop the model and evaluation instrument as it is a systematic method to elicit expert opinion. The sample included 400 administrators, instructors, producers, directors, writers, instructional designers, distributors, consortia members, and authors.

Scoring. Scores were calculated for 112 respondents who took part in both rounds. Respondents ranked their knowledge and the importance of the statement on a scale of one (low) to four (high). The mean for each statement was reported and represented the relative amount of knowledge the group felt that it had about the statement or the relative amount of importance the group attached to the statement. Both are valid indicators of the mean accuracy of group responses (Dalkey 1969b).

Expert Subgroup. Those respondents ranking their knowledge at four, "quite sure" of their response, composed an expert subgroup for that statement (Dalkey 1969b). An 80 percent consensus of the expert subgroup, was accepted as the final consensus (Helmer 1966; Dalkey 1969b; Kalton 1983).

First Round. Based upon the literature, nine significant concerns were derived as an interactive model of educational and media concerns and a questionnaire with 23 representative statements was created (Brown 1968). The nine areas were educational objectives, instructional design, content, textbook, faculty guide, study guide, computer software, video, and cost. The questions were open ended so that respondents could edit or add questions (Brown 1968; Dalkey 1969a, 1971). A pre-test was conducted by a panel of six judges. The index of content validity was set at 50 percent agreement of the judges' ratings; this was met.Consensus was set at 50 percent of the respondents' ranking the importance at four (high); if below that, the expert subgroup score was taken to deem consensus at 50 percent. All of the original statements were retained.

Second Round. The instrument contained 72 statements based upon respondents' feedback which included scores, comments and subsidiary statements (Brown 1968). When a subsidiary question or rewording was suggested, it was researched and if supported in the literature, it appeared in the second round (Brown 1968). Respondents suggested adding 28 subsidiary statements; nine statements were finance related; and 21 statements were separated into smaller groups of evaluating criteria and rewritten so that scores would accurately reflect the judgment of respondents. Consensus was set at 80 percent of the expert subgroup; if below that, the question was deleted. The nine evaluation areas were supported; 57 statements were supported (see Table 1). The 15 statements which were not supported were in production, areas which were covered by credit granting regulations, delivery methods, or other institutional procedures according to respondents comments. A post-test was conducted by a panel of six judges. The index of content validity was set at 80 percent agreement of the judges' ratings; this was met.

Interquartile Deviation - QD. Given iteration with feedback, the group should exhibit convergence of opinion toward consensus (Dalkey, 1969b) which is reflected in the interquartile deviation (QD). This is a gross measure of how widely the answers differed (Brown & Helmer 1964) and is the standard deviation of the middle 50 percent of responses on one statement. This is a valid indicator of the mean accuracy of group responses (Dalkey 1969b). Based upon the expert subgroup scores showing agreement at or above 80 percent and experts' QDs at .000, it is assumed that group judgment was operating rather than personal attitudes (Dalkey 1971b).

Results. There were 178 respondents to the first round which was a 44 percent return rate. They were sent the second round survey and 112 responded which was a 62 percent return rate and 28 percent of the original sample. Respondents represented all fifty states, Canada and Great Britain. The mean number of years in training or education was 9.9. Fifty percent of the respondents held masters degrees and 35.7 percent held doctorates. A degree in education was held by 64.3 percent of the respondents. Seventy percent of the respondents were directly responsible for distance education; 16.1 percent were administrators; 6.3 percent were instructors; and 9.8 percent were media producers.

No standardized, empirically based, or acceptable selection model or instrument was provided by the respondents; 68.9 percent do not conduct any evaluation; 27.7 percent conduct student evaluations; and only 2.9 percent use or are developing a pre-adoption instrument. Respondents comments and lack of evaluation supported statements that clear evaluation procedures do not exist and that adoption is not grounded in empirically based methodology.

Final Questions

Section 1: Educational Objectives and Expert Consensus Percentage

1. Are objectives for the telecourse and each component stated in cognitive, affective, and psychomotor statements appropriate for the content? (86%)
2. Are objectives for the telecourse and each component at a level of difficulty appropriate for the content and learners? (90.8%)
3. Are objectives achievable by the institution's average student; can levels of achievement be measured under specified conditions? (94.8%)
4. Will the course meet the educational objectives of learners as either a required or as an elective course? (94%)
5. Are the telecourse objectives and content equivalent/similar to the on-campus course? (87.5%)
6. If the telecourse is not equivalent to the on-campus course, can it be adapted to be equivalent? (86.1%)

Section 2: Instructional Design

7. Is the telecourse fully planned and logically organized? (97.4%)
8. Is each telecourse component necessary, well coordinated and does it accomplish objectives for which it was designed? (96.8%)
9. Does the telecourse use teaching strategies appropriate for traditional and adult learners? (84.9%)
10. Does the course use a variety of teaching strategies appropriate to the content which reach learners who prefer to learn through visual, auditory, tactile (hands-on) and kinesthetic (emotional experiences) methods. (80.9 %)

11. Is the lesson size (amount and difficulty of content), number, pace, depth, and sequence appropriate for the content, and learners? (93.8%)
12. Do components encourage learner interaction with the content by posing challenging questions and providing answers when appropriate; through written assignments and other techniques which motivate learner participation? (80.4%)
13. Do components encourage critical viewing, reading and thinking? (91.8%)
14. Are appropriate visuals used in each visual component which contribute to student learning? (95.9%)
15. Is language appropriate for content and learners; interesting, understandable, and similar in all components? (97.3%)
16. Is the language in the video component effectively delivered; is it well-phrased, and easy to listen to? (95.1 %)
17. Is the language in print components readable? (97.6%)
18. Is self-directed learning encouraged in all components? (83.0%)
19. Are assignments appropriate for learners and content? (92.8%
20. Are assignments of interest to learners and balanced between viewing, reading, experiential, and interactive activities appropriate for distance learning? (92.8%)

Section 3: Content

21. Is the content appropriate to course title, description, and credit hours? (94.2%)
22. Is the content accurate, clear, comprehensive, balanced, current, and well-documented? (96.8%)

Section 4: Textbook

23. Is the textbook designed and written for the telecourse or does it correlate well with it; do textbook revisions match video revisions? (86.4%)
24. Does the textbook facilitate student comprehension through language and pace appropriate for the course and learners? (90.5%)
25. Is the cost of the textbook reasonable for students? (81.4%)
26. Will the textbook be available from the publisher at the scheduled time? (96.0%)

Section 5: Faculty Guide

27. Does the faculty guide contain segments for new faculty, faculty responsibilities, objectives for the telecourse and each component, instructional design, lesson outlines, a variety of assignments which encourage involvement, and optional syllabi for different texts, settings, and semester lengths? (87.5%)
28. Does the faculty guide contain teaching strategies appropriate for content for traditional and adult learners, student level, student needs, and strategies for use for seminars, telephone meetings, letters to student(s), grading, and other forms of instructor feedback to the distance learner? (81.2%)
29. Does the faculty guide test bank have clearly stated objective and essay questions relevant to objectives and content: are questions included on video, text and other components; are test keys included; are content locations of test answers listed; do tests have validity? (93.0%)
30. Are test formats appropriate for at home tests, proctored testing, and computer testing? (84.9%)
31. Has the faculty guide been updated if the textbook or video has been revised? (94.0%)
32. Does the copyright and format of the faculty guide allow changes by the user institution? (87.9%)

Section 6: Student Study Guide

33. Does the study guide contain segments on objectives, components, lesson outlines, video outlines, glossary, key concepts, references, exercises, self-tests with explanations, self-directed learning strategies, and activities to pursue personal interests appropriate for the content? (94.4%)
34. Does the student study guide contribute to the student achieving objectives by serving as the student's personal tutor and directing the student's learning from the components? (91.0%)
35. Is the cost of the study guide appropriate for the institution's students? (88.4%)
36. Does the copyright and format of the study guide allow changes by the user institution? (81.0%)

Section 7: Computer Software

37. Is the computer software appropriate to content; contribute to achieving educational objectives? (91.3%)
38. Are computer software versions and documentation available for most campus and student computer systems (IBM, Apple, Macintosh)? (86.4%)
39. Is the computer software appropriate to the students' computer literacy; user friendly and error free?(95.8%)
40. Is the computer software available for site and home licensing? (90.5%)
41. Is the computer software cost appropriate for the institution and the institution's students? (88.5 %)

Section 8: Video

42. Does the video technical quality meet professional broadcast quality standards if it is to be broadcast? (82.9%)
43. Does the video technical quality meet quality standards appropriate to the delivery method for which it is intended to be used such as cable, ITFS, fiber optic cable, learning center, or tapes loaned to students? (90.9 %)
44. Does program length fit standard periods such as 30 or 60 minutes (as opposed to 41, 19 minutes or 47 minutes which do not fit 30-minute programming periods)? (80.5%)
45. Is the treatment appropriate to content: documentary, lecture, discussion, panel, drama, humor, etc., and does not exclusively use a lecture or "talking head" format? (80.5%)
46. Is the dialogue believable in the video program? (80.0 %)
47. Does the television program give the same message in spoken words and video? (84.1%)

48. Does the video enrich learning with real-life application of theoretical content by conducting video experiments and demonstrations in realistic settings (industrial laboratory, office etc.) or video field trips to realistic locations (museums, factories, clinics, etc.)? (88.4%)
49. Does the video advance content understanding by providing appropriate pace? (84.1%)
50. Are production values high so that the production becomes invisible; production values include appropriate camera shots, good lighting, color balance, motion sequences, special/digital effects appropriately used, consistently good level of audio, and clean editing? (80.9%)
51. Is voice and sound imaginatively used to advance content? (82.3%)
52. Is the instructor(s) a skillful presenter who has content expertise and who communicates a sincere enthusiasm for the subject? (90.7%)
53. Are actors competent in their craft? (82.0%)

Section 9: Cost

54. Is the cost appropriate for the institution's available funding?
55. Can target learners and enrollment potential be identified?
56. Is the licensing contract appropriate for the institution's delivery methods and length of use?
57. Are dubbing masters easily accessible and in excellent condition?

Major Findings. Statements which contained adult education principles, methods or teaching strategies reached consensus except for the use of learning contracts (rejected at 72.1%). Based upon the number of respondents ranking themselves with high knowledge (35) as well as the low group knowledge (35.7%) and importance scores (33.9%), there is little knowledge about learning contracts or their usewith telecourses.

One statement questioned whether strategies should be evaluated for their ability to reach all student learning styles and was accepted (80%). The comments and the lower group score (48%) suggest that learning styles and how they may be applied to media are not well understood. Respondents perceived that visual and auditory styles can be addressed, but do not perceive that tactile, kinesthetic, or interactive styles can be addressed through all components.

All statements regarding shelf life were rejected (69.8 to 74.6%). Producers indicated that a two to three year shelf life was normal; users wanted a much longer shelf life for cost effectiveness which indicates that producers should minimize aspects which directly affect shelf life. A possible solution is to package content with the shortest life in one video program or in print supplements which could be updated by producers or users.

There were two statements on video technical quality which received consensus. One stated that the video technical quality should meet professional broadcast quality standards (82.9%). The second stated that video technical quality should meet professional broadcast quality standards appropriate to the delivery method (cable, ITFS, broadcast, learning center, etc.) (90.9%). There has been a long-standing discussion about video technical quality and learning differences, if any, between educational programming produced with low or high production values. Opinion polarized into two areas. One group believes that production values are acceptable if they fit the delivery method. The second group believes that production values must meet broadcast standards because students are constantly exposed to it and will judge educational programming by their experience with commercial television. The implication for producers is that they will need to produce programming which meets broadcast quality standards in order to meet both needs. If production is less than broadcast quality, they will lose part of the market.

A statement that a total of 15 hours of video programming is ideal was rejected (47.1%). Comments documented that a new regulatory factor has emerged where some accrediting agencies have set student contact hours at 45 hours, the same amount required for traditional classes. This has made the 15-hour telecourse unacceptable to institutions operating under these regulations as additional projects cannot be substituted for contact hours. The 15-hour telecourse carries one credit hour; respondents felt that students would not register for this. This has implications for program design and funding and is a warning that the 45-hour contact regulation may be broadly applied. Respondents concerns are that it increases tape costs, replacement courses are difficult to find, and broadcast time becomes limited. Solutions may be lecture audio tapes or classes conducted via audio bridge. If the 15-hour telecourse is to be defended, the defense will have to be based on its quality, excellence and research showing that equivalent educational objectives can be achieved in 15 hours by a multi-media program as that obtained from 45 contact hours.

A statement regarding experts being nationally recognized was rejected (44.3%). This has implications for producers who use experts. Statements were rejected about profit projection (45.0%) and comparison of cost effectiveness of similar courses (70.4%). Comments indicated that it is difficult to project income. Shrinking resources would seem to mandate that distance educators develop this management ability.

A statement about the inclusion of marketing concepts and materials was rejected (64.6%).

Conclusions: The media selection model and its evaluating instrument require evaluators to apply specific criteria to the telecourse to determine the suitability of its use in the program. The model and the evaluating instrument consider the combination of media and factors related to the course's general organization, video programs, and learners. It can be used with training or post secondary materials to evaluate more than one medium and is short enough to be of practical use.

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Women's College Alumnae of an External Degree Program: An Institutional Advancement Perspective

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ABSTRACT

A growing group of potential donors about which little is known are alumni who were mature students. This study establishes a benchmark of information from an institutional advancement perspective about alumnae of a women's college external degree program who were 23 years old or older when they were students.

Based on previous studies, the focus of the current study was (a) characteristics of donors and nondonors and (b) collegiate experiences of donors and nondonors. Research questions identified background and characteristics and collegiate and alumnae experiences of the external degree alumnae, and identified differences between donors and nondonors on specific variables.

The Stephens College Alumnae Survey (SCAS) was developed and distributed using Dillman's Total Design Method, and resulted in a 72% return.

Donors and nondonors differed significantly on several variables. Two strong implications of the study are: 1) adult women students who graduate from the external degree program are a strong potential source of financial support, and 2) personal relationships with faculty and staff may substitute for participation in campus activities for adult students, which gives a new perspective to accepted definitions of involvement.

Women's College Alumnae of an External Degree Program: An Institutional Advancement Perspective

INTRODUCTION

As private gifts become more important, higher education is becoming more sophisticated in soliciting donor support. The growing group of potential donors about which little is known are alumni who were mature students.

This research study was developed to address the lack of information about adult students, their donor patterns, their collegiate and alumni experiences, and how the women's college experience affects mature women students.

Based on studies of alumni (who were 18 to 22 years old when in school) and their donor behaviors, this study establishes a benchmark of information from an institutional advancement perspective about alumnae of a women's college external degree program who were 23 years old or older when they were students.

The Stephens College Alumnae Survey (SCAS) was developed from previous studies of traditional-aged students, and was distributed to all 705 graduates of the college's external degree program. The Total Design Method developed by Dillman (1978) was used to develop the questionnaire and to process the study. Responses from 460 of the 641 usable surveys yielded a 72% return.

Previous studies which formed the basis of this study focused on the women's college student, donor behavior and involvement in campus and alumni activities. Major sources of information about women's colleges alumnae are studies by the Women's College Coalition (1981, 1985). Researchers such as Beeler (1982), Caruthers (1973), Gardner (1975), Haddad (1986) and Keller (1982) have studied characteristics of donors and nondonors. Other researchers (e.g. Carlson, 1978; Dahl, 1981; McKee, 1975; and Nelson, 1988) explored the collegiate and alumni experiences of donors and nondonors.

The research questions in this study were:

1. What are the backgrounds and characteristics of graduates of a four-year women's college external degree program?
2. What are the backgrounds and characteristics of graduates of a four-year women's college external degree program which are different for donors and nondonors?
3. What were the collegiate experiences of graduates of a four-year women's college external degree program?
4. Were the collegiate experiences of graduates of a four-year women's college external degree program different for donors and nondonors?

An ex post facto design was used. Research questions 1 and 3, seeking the characteristics and experiences of a women's college external degree graduates, were answered by descriptive statistics. Research questions 2 and 4, seeking differences in characteristics and experiences of donors and nondonors, were answered through testing four null hypotheses. According to the scaling properties of the SCAS items, chi-square was used when the variables were nominal and t-tests were used when the dependent variables were continuous and presumed interval.

THE RESPONSES

Graduates of the external degree program range in age from 28 to 75. Two-thirds of the graduates are currently married and three-fourths were married when they attended Stephens. Most are employed full time, with incomes spread from less than $20,000 to more than $50,000.

Self improvement was the major reason that most entered the degree program. Twenty per cent said that Stephens' status as a women's college influenced them positively to attend, however almost two-thirds said that they had a different sense of themselves as women because of the Stephens experience.

There was a strong intensity of positive feelings for the college which was expressed in their reflections on the Stephens experience. More than 90 per cent said that, regardless of economic considerations, the Stephens experience had improved their quality of life.

The quality of the Stephens experience was rated highly by the graduates. An overwhelming majority of all respondents reported timely and regular communication with the program. Quality of advising and quality of instruction received high rankings.

The alumnae also compared the quality of a Stephens education favorably to other colleges. Those who continued their educations (more than half the respondents) ranked their Stephens preparation more than adequate.

One fourth of the graduates are donors to Stephens, but almost 10 per cent said they had never been asked to donate. The phonathon was an important means of solicitation.

THE FINDINGS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

1. There were differences between donors and nondonors on the following background and characteristic variables: year of graduation, marital status when a student, current employment status, awareness of current happenings at Stephens, participation

in alumnae programs, and when asked to donate.

2. There were differences between donors and nondonors on the following collegiate and alumnae experience variables: class format, having a role model, if the role model was a male faculty member, how highly the quality of a Stephens education was compared to other colleges, how well Stephens prepared alumnae for continuing their educations, and reflections on the Stephens experience.

Male faculty are a significant group with donors. Do these faculty members encourage their students to give institutional support? Role models present an area for further study, particularly in this era of focus on mentors and the mentoring process. Are mentors and role models the same or different? If so, how are they the same or different?

3. The Total Design Method was useful as a process to gather information from external degree alumnae. Other institutions may want to use this tool to survey their alumni.

4. Results of this study confirmed results of previous studies conducted of 18 to 22-year old alumni in several ways, including the strong effect of a women's college education, time from graduation, awareness of happenings on campus and participation in alumnae programs.

Twenty per cent said that Stephens' status as a women's college influenced them positively to attend, however almost two-thirds said that they had a different sense of themselves as women because of the Stephens experience. These results reflect the same positive effect of a women's college education which previous research studies show for younger students. What are the factors which make this experience so powerful? Comparison studies of 18 to 22-year old students with older women students would add to the understanding of the women's college experience.

Alumnae who graduated 10 or more years prior to the study were more likely to be donors than more recent graduates. The finding that distance over time from graduation is strongly related to donor status for external degree graduates mirrors earlier studies of traditional-aged students. What are the reasons for this? As time passes, are positive experiences remembered as negative ones fade? Is the sense of mortality a factor?

Alumnae donors felt more aware of current happenings on campus, and donors participated in alumnae activities. One implication is that involving external degree alumnae in alumnae programs may develop donors. In this study, few external degree alumnae participated in alumnae programs. How can that participation be increased?

5. The SCAS did not identify any experiences which were analogous to the participation and leadership experiences of residential students, and this brings into question the emerging literature connecting physical participation in campus activities with donor status. It could be that faculty and staff provide the interaction and connections for external degree students which residential students experience in group living and extracurricular activities. Perhaps not having the options for physical involvement in external degree programs is less important for adults than for younger students who are often establishing their own identities. Adults in external degree programs maintain family, social and career relationships while in school. For younger students, the living units and extra-curricular activities may provide the support which adults have already developed before entering the external degree program. Astin's definition of involvement (1984) may be incomplete when considering the level of involvement displayed by these off-campus students.

One intriguing finding was that the participants in this study said they felt they had made lifelong friends from their collegiate experience. These friends were not other students. This finding implies a strong relationship with faculty and staff which should be explored further. External degree programs should investigate the relationships which mature students develop with faculty and staff members to identify components of the relationships.

6. A profile of the Stephens College external degree alumna donor can be drawn. She is married, but was single when she attended Stephens. She is 55 or older and graduated more than 10 years ago. She is retired or a full time homemaker. She is even more positive about her Stephens experience than her peers. She had a role model, and he was likely to be a male faculty member. She is solicited for donations through the phonathon. She participates in alumnae programs, and feels aware of current happenings at Stephens. She supports Stephens because she feels she is doing something worthwhile for the college.

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EXTERNAL EVALUATION:
Balancing Humanistic Philosophy with Behavioristic Methodology

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Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to address a major research consideration which faces external evaluators as they conduct consultative evaluations. It is not uncommon that those who retain the services of the evaluator have quite different expectations of the evaluation. Without taking time to understand the cultural climate, the "mind set" of the program's management, external evaluators can encounter misunderstandings which can interrupt meaningful formative and summative evaluation. The investigators come from an adult education background and are currently serving as external evaluators for a federally-funded Workplace Literacy program being implemented by a local community college and a independent industrial manufacturing company. This particular evaluation experience caught the investigators off guard and led them to search for clues and background for the apparent miscommunication. Issues of differing philosophies and understandings produced meaningful insights which may serve as a case study for potential external evaluators.

EXTERNAL EVALUATION: Balancing Humanistic Philosophy with Behavioristic Methodology

What is to be learned from an external evaluation experience? Are adult education researchers and practitioners aware that not everyone perceives evaluation in the same way? Is there room in the evaluation models so prevalent today for discussion of philosophical differences? Can misunderstandings be averted before they have a chance to interrupt meaningful formative and summative evaluations? The balancing of philosophy and methodology must be met head-on if we as researchers and evaluators are to be most effective.

The role of an external evaluator requires many skills, not the least of which is the ability to balance one's personal ideology with the existent philosophy found in the program which is to be evaluated. Beyond the notion of what is to be evaluated and how that evaluation will be conducted, the evaluator must deal with the "mental-set" in which the program is being carried out. External evaluators need to remain independent of the project team and program managers, establishing a formal relationship with management while ensuring all stakeholders of their ownership in the evaluation. The choice of an external evaluator is often made when creditability and objectivity might be questioned. (Cummings, et. al. 1988). Issues pertaining to public policy and funding emerge from the political process and flow with the undercurrents of the inherent biases of the client's environment.

A review of the literature on external evaluation revealed a model which calls for providing both formative (on-going, "how are things going?" "shall we modify?") and summative (overview and review, "did we accomplish what we set out to do?" "what parts of this program shall we replicate?") evaluation. The external evaluator provides insights, questions the ends and the "whys," examines intents and effectiveness of programs, explores program outcomes, and attempts to respond with qualitative as well as quantitative data which can validate and justify the project's existence.

Few resources stressed that external evaluators must become fully aware of all the spoken and unspoken goals of the program planners, the management team, the trainees, indeed all the stakeholders. Frustration can result when administrators, managers, trainers and learners have different expectations from the same evaluation. Administrators often seek evaluations which summarize quality, results, and value of total programs. Federal and state administrators may desire need information which summarizes the program in accordance with state and federal guidelines. Trainers and teachers generally are interested in the quality and results of their instruction. Participants are primarily interested in evaluation which helps them understand their progress in relation to that of others and that which is expected of them. (Steele 1988) A high proportion of time needs to be allocated to becoming familiar with management's priorities while discerning what the various expectations of the stakeholders are. (Cummings, et. al. 1988) Whether this is a realistic expectation is not the issue. Rather, evaluators must make the opportunities to carry out this essential element if their evaluation is to be viable and utilized. Understanding what people are thinking and perceiving takes time. The balance between perceptions, expectations, and reality cannot be maintained without this component.

The following case study will give an example of a real situation where these potential problems were dealt with before the consultative evaluation format was successful.

Our Office of Research and Evaluation in Adult and Continuing Education (RE/ACE) was asked to serve as external evaluators for a federally-funded Workplace Literacy program being implemented by a local community college and a independent industrial manufacturing company. The community college chose us as external evaluators to satisfy federal project evaluation guidelines of objectivity. RE/ACE perceived its role as both formative and summative, reviewing plan, process, and results. The project involved adult workers in the day-to-day operation of this plant who received training to improve their reasoning, problem solving, and decision-making in job specific areas as part of the first objective of the program. We were given the impression that our input would be welcomed. From the very beginning, all stakeholders were involved in the evaluation process. The benefits to all stakeholders were identified and cooperation was assured.

What unfolded revealed that the evaluation team's expectations of their role and the workplace management team's understanding of evaluation were not congruent. We began our evaluation by observing two training sessions and writing our reactions. Quite noticeably, willingness to meet with us or discuss our observations was replaced by requests for clarification with written expectations very carefully delineated by the human resource manager. Why this sudden change in attitude? Had we unknowingly offended someone? Or worse, overstepped our bounds?

An invitation to a luncheon presentation by the outside consultant, who was hired to design the training program, turned out to be much more than meeting the principals. What we heard espoused in that one hour gave insight to what was happening. The model being implemented for the training program was based on behavioristic methodology by which management level personnel are encouraged to set expectation levels of individual workers, monitor their progress towards that goal, and then stretch the workers' productivity even farther through advancing the goals a notch or two. Management is responsible to reinforce the work ethic and focus on the behavior of the workers. The speaker implied that training has no lasting impact on productivity. Neither does organizational restructuring or the "quality of life" emphasis. (Anderson 1989). The worker is not the center of the appeal. Neither is his or her welfare or personal circumstances. The workers behaviors are to be shaped and their time "rented" (training sessions were mandatory but with time and half overtime pay). Productivity is monitored by computer and coded progress charts are displayed for each worker.

Adult education principles which include humanistic philosophy have no part in the model being implemented and thus the clue to misunderstanding and distrust. Management by objectives assumes it is only important for the program to do what it says it will (increase productivity in this case) rather than questioning whether the original objectives were important. The consumer perspective often associated with adult education are not overtly dealt with in this project. When we addressed the human issues of workers' growth and input in the project, the behaviorist philosophy was challenged. From our humanistic perspective, the valuing component (economic, social, psychological and aesthetic value of the results of the program) was not being addressed. The emphasis on proof of effect (criteria focused evaluation) was the expectation of management. (Steele 1988)

Our external evaluation became a threat to the model and the managers. They were working under the assumption that top-down input meant they would have to respond and change just as they were expecting the workers to do. If workers are expected to monitor and change their behavior, we as external evaluators must want management to do likewise. This was not our intention. When we suggested other possible ways of dealing with adult learners who were tired and uninterested in the training sessions, the walls went up quickly. Formative evaluation was perceived as a set of directives with negative implications of their handling of the program's objectives.

What was learned from this external evaluation experience? Researchers in evaluation and those who are involved in external evaluation, in particular, need to become more aware of the cultural environment in which they will move. While it is not an easy task, as external evaluators we need to examine the biases and perceptions of our clients as well as our own if we want to present the most insightful and helpful evaluation. We must be carefully attuned to the uniqueness, the underlying philosophy which motivates the program's planners. (Faase and Pujdak 1987) The balancing of philosophy and methodology is not to be taken lightly.

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HANS-GEORG GADAMER AND TRADITION: THE FACILITATION OF ADULT SELF-DISCOVERY

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Abstract

One of the documented goals of adult education concerns the facilitation of self-discovery. Two current approaches to the facilitation of self-discovery, psychological analysis and perspective transformation, are critiqued. Self-discovery on the part of adult learner is best achieved as a by-product of the study of the formative tradition that shaped, and currently shapes, a person's directedness toward the world. The work of the philosopher Hans-Georg Gadamer in the areas of hermeneutics and tradition serves as the basis for this philosophical investigation. Self-discovery occurs --- a new interpretive understanding of self unfolds --- when a person shares his or her story in the context of group discussion. Truth is described in the original sense of the Greek word ALEITHEIA (unveiling). Insofar as the truth about self can be known, it is known through the disclosure of self that occurs when someone "unveils" his or her tradition in conversation. Practitioners are asked to suggest ways of testing the theory of this approach in actual adult education settings.

Hans-Georg Gadamer and Tradition: The Facilitation of Adult Self-Discovery

While there may be many goals for adult education transcendent to the attainment of immediate learning objectives, not the least of these goals is self-discovery. This has been proposed, in one form or another, throughout the history of American adult education by Lindeman (1926/1961, p. 46), Bergevin (1967, p. 30), Apps (1973, p. 63), Mezirow (1981), and most recently by Brookfield (1985). What is proposed theoretically, however, is not always easily implemented.

Two Brief Critiques

How can practitioners of adult education help learners in the work of self-discovery? What means are appropriate for the facilitation of adult self-discovery? Prior to responding to these questions, I wish to offer critiques, necessarily brief, of two current approaches: psychological analysis and Mezirow's perspective transformation.

Psychological Analysis

Without rejecting medical psychiatry as a means of treatment or, for that matter, any kind of "talk" therapy for helping people negotiate the shoals of life, I share Ludwig Wittgenstein's criticism of psychology (1953/1968, p. 232e). Psychology, despite the promises of the experimental method, is barren and confused. There are as many paradigms for understanding human beings as there are psychologists who own typewriters. The field of psychology is crowded with fads and in its popular applications is dominated by transient tastes.

Why should adult educators expose learners to any single one of these paradigms in the attempt to facilitate adult self-discovery? Why should I seek to understand myself in terms of the ideological assumptions, a priori categories, and value systems of a Freud, an Adler, a Rank, or a Jung? The selection of any privileged psychological map or maps for self-discovery brings with it certain predeterminations. For if I seek to discover myself, say, in terms of Jungian psychology, I am locked into a way of forestructuring the inquiry, i.e., the Jungian paradigm itself prompts me to ask certain questions and to exclude others.

Finally, those who actively pursue self-understanding in terms of psychological analysis frequently fall into a condition of self-absorption. An unrelenting psychological analysis of self, a consuming focus on one's own psyche, represents a subtle form of narcissism. Authentic self-discovery, I suggest, is a by-product of another kind of search, the nature of which I discuss below.

Perspective Transformation

Mezirow defines perspective transformation as "the emancipatory process of becoming critically aware of how and why the structure of psycho-cultural assumptions has come to constrain the way we see ourselves and our relationships, reconstituting this structure to permit a more inclusive and discriminating integration of experience and acting upon these new understandings" (1981, p. 6).

There is much that is worthwhile in perspective transformation. What must be challenged, however, is the gratuitious assumption that everyone needs liberation from a crippling past. What must also be challenged is the stereotypical thinking that stamps special groups of adults as "victims" who need to be rescued from their "false consciousness" by the messianic action of the educator who, of course, has a "true consciousness."

Make no mistake, people have been oppressed historically and are oppressed today. The ancient message of the Jewish prophets is relevant today: social justice must be everyone's concern. The civilizing process is retarded when any a person is denied justice. What is at issue here, however, is not a matter of goals but one of tactics.

I argue there is no tactical advantage in the affirmation of the Marxist doctrine that class warfare is the iron rule of history (Marx and Engels, 1848/1965). Nothing is accomplished educationally by inculcating in entire groups a "victim" mentality that fosters enervating paranoia. The would-be emancipators of "oppressed" groups have hurt people by convincing them they are the mere creatures of social environment and, therefore, not responsible human beings. In short, adults are not helped along the road of self-discovery by proselytizing them and indoctrinating them into the regnant dogmas of the political Left.

Hans-Georg Gadamer

Adults can achieve some degree of self-discovery as a by-product of their coming to grips with the traditions that shaped, and continue to shape, their mode of being-in-the-world. Everyone comes out of, proceeeds through, and reacts to a tradition. To understand one's formative tradition is to begin to interpret self with greater insight.

Arguably no one has written more profoundly about the shaping influences of tradition than Hans-Georg Gadamer, professor emeritus of philosophy at the University of Heidelberg. His intellectual history is charted in his Philosophical Apprenticeships (1977/1985). Gadamer's major work Truth and Method (1960/1986) won critical acclaim in this country when it became available in translation. His contributions to philosophy are largely in the areas of: 1) hermeneutics and 2) the study of tradition vis-a-vis experience and understanding.

Hermeneutics

The word hermeneutics is taken from the Greek word HERMENEUEIN which in English is rendered "to interpret." The Greek word points etymologically to the priest who attended the oracle at Delphi, and to the messenger of the gods Hermes. Hermes, the Roman Mercury, took something that was beyond human knowledge and transformed it into something understandable. In the hermeneutic process, according to Richard Palmer (1969, p. 14) "something foreign, strange, separated in time, space, or experience is made familiar, present, comprehensive; something requiring representation, explanation, or translation is somehow 'brought to understanding' --- is interpreted."

Gadamer observed that the task of hermeneutics is the bridging of distance between minds. It is "the art of clarifying and mediating by our own effort of interpretation what is said by persons we encounter in tradition. Hermeneutics operates wherever what is said is not immediately intelligible" (Gadamer, 1964/1977, p. 98). What is important in this, is the idea that hermeneutics is an art.

Philosophical hermeneutics does not attempt rigorous proofs or strive for positivistic certainty; philosophical hermeneutics approaches reality not as a problem that must be solved according to a definite method but as something to be interpreted collaboratively. Further, our interpretive understanding of the world, and of ourselves, is facilitated when we enter into conversation with others. The truth about anything is unveiled gradually when we share with each other our interpretations. The American philosopher Richard Rorty writes: "Hermeneutics sees the relations between various discourses as those of strands in a possible conversation, a conversation which presupposes no disciplinary matrix which unites the speakers, but where the hope of agreement is never lost so long as the conversation lasts" (1979, p. 318).

Tradition

Many otherwise sophisticated persons today share the bias that what speaks to us out of tradition is always wrong. Whatever hearkens to the past is faulted for not meeting the criterion of modernity. More than any other philosopher Gadamer has explained the historical background of this phenomenon and has rehabilitated the notion of tradition.

When we think about tradition we tend to imagine a body of dusty rules and out-of-date prescriptions. Living within a tradition, according to Gadamer, has nothing to do with a blind adherence to something authoritatively given. To stand within a tradition means sharing a language, for example, and having a common ground for raising issues. A tradition is never completed. Errors in the tradition are found out and corrected. People "argue" with their respective traditions. Obscure meanings are retrieved from tradition and clarified. The tradiiton acts upon us and we act upon the tradition. Tradition is reconstructed and refreshed by individuals in the light of their experiences and by coming into contact with other traditions. Tradition is a dynamic reality.

No one can outrun tradition. That you cannot go home again may be true. It is also true that you can never leave home. The events in each person's life are touched by the tradition that shaped that individual's being-in-the-world. Tradition is a kind of canonized experience in terms of which we interpret the world and ourselves. The tradition each person receives "prejudices" that person, not in the pejorative sense used by Enlightenment philosophers, but in the original sense of a provisional judgment or inclination. "Prejudices are not necessarily unjustified and erroneous, so that they inevitably distort the truth. In fact, the historicity of our existence entails that prejudices, in the literal sense of the word, constitute the initial directedness of our whole ability to experience" (Gadamer, 1977, p. 9).

Tradition and Conversation

The truth about anything, including self, is continually unveiled through conversation, discussion, communication. Self-discovery occurs when the adult reviews how tradition is elaborated in his or her thinking, feeling, and acting, and also by investigating how the tradition is renewed and changed in the *Lebenswelt*. Self-discovery is not advanced merely by describing the features of a tradition but in the study of the dynamic interaction between tradition and the self-determining adult. Everyone not only "has" a history but "is" an ongoing history. It is in the telling of this history, in the sharing of one's story within a group context, that a new interpretive understanding of self unfolds.

Conclusion

Adult self-discovery, I suggest, can be facilitated effectively in a small group of eight to twelve participants. In the initial stages of group discussion participants should describe their respective traditions, i.e., the national background/ethnic, political, religious, social, economic, educational, ethical, and regional values that influenced their development during formative years. Examples of important life-shaping incidents can be exchanged. The extent to which this sharing of participants' "stories" occurs depends, of course, on the level of trust formation in the group. (A supplementary information sheet contains additional discussion questions).

After participants have described the traditions that have influenced their patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting, the discussion group next selects topics for further discussion. Topics are determined on the basis of group consensus. The facilitator must avoid suggesting discussion topics or pronouncing judgment on the comments of group members. At the conclusion of each session, the facilitator can lead the group in a retrospective analysis of the discussion vis-a-vis what had initially been stated about the traditions of group members.

The philosophical investigation reported here principally suggests a theory for the facilitation of self-discovery. It is hoped adult education practitioners will not only critique what has been presented but will also offer ideas, on the basis of their experience, regarding the implementation of the theory. In what settings and circumstances can discussions be arranged? What kind of action research will test the theory? What demonstration projects will show the promise or futility of what has been proposed? How can adult educators establish discussion groups that help the participants evaluate their current positions on various issues in terms of the traditions that influenced them? What is needed to form discussion groups wherein participants collaborate in the unveiling of reality instead of pitting against one another their closed certainties?

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CHARACTERISTICS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE ORIENTATION AND TRAINING OF NEW EXTENSION FIELD STAFF

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ABSTRACT

The key to instructional success for adult education is the adult educator. It is virtually impossible to establish guidelines and criteria for selection and training that will suffice for all adult educators in general. This study addressed the criteria for selection and training of one segment of adult educators, Extension field staff.

The target population for this study was the State Directors or Acting Directors of Cooperative Extension. On June 1, 1988, fifty-one (51) questionnaires were sent out, one to each state and the District of Columbia. The study and findings were completed in August 1988.

Extension educators are but a small segment of the adult educator community, but the findings from this study crossover into many areas of adult education. Though adult educators are selected for their subject matter expertise, there may be a trend toward selection for teaching and communication skills. Orientation and follow-up training is essential for adult educators with a mentoring system for support and training. Supervisory visits are still preferred for success of new adult educators.

CHARACTERISTICS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE ORIENTATION AND TRAINING OF NEW EXTENSION FIELD STAFF

INTRODUCTION:

Adult education is a diverse field which includes students from a variety of backgrounds, education and experience. To fill the needs of those participating, the educators must also come from a variety of backgrounds, education and experience and have the ability to relate this material to their students. The key to instructional success is the adult educator. This makes it imperative that adult educators perform at the most effective level possible. (Verdium, Miller and Greer 1977)

With the diversity in the adult educators' background and experience, it is virtually impossible to establish guidelines and criteria of selection and training that will suffice for all adult educators. Therefore this study will address the criteria for selection and training of one segment of adult education, Extension field staff.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVE:

The focal point of this study is to determine if the present criteria for selection and orientation training of new Extension field staff is providing Extension with highly trained professional educators. Specifically, the following questions are asked to analyze the criteria for selecting and training high quality individuals:

1.) What educational criteria is presently used for selection?
2.) What changes in educational criteria could improve the selection of new Extension field staff?
3.) What are the characteristics of the present first year orientation and follow-up training?
4.) What characteristics should an effective first year orientation and follow-up program contain?
5.) Would the use of a mentor system enhance the new field staff transition into full-time employment. "Mentor" is defined as present field staff directly charged with on-the-job training of new employees.

METHODOLOGY:

The target population for this study was the State Directors or acting Directors of Cooperative Extension. The survey included questions concerning the educational criteria used for selection, the orientation and follow-up training of new Extension field staff, the qualifications a mentor should have, and whether a formal mentor system would enhance orientation training. Responses received from the questionnaire represented the opinions of Extension professionals who have input in developing and changing the system presently being used for selection, orientation, and training of new Extension field staff.

The survey questionnaire was developed and reviewed by members of the University of Missouri - Columbia Extension Education Department. Four states were selected to field test the survey. The suggested changes and terminology from the field test were made on the questionnaire to assure content validity.

On June 1, 1988, a total of fifty-one (51) questionnaires were sent out, one to each state and the District of Columbia. A follow-up letter was sent on June 23 to those not having responded to the questionnaire by June 22. A total of 42 questionnaires were received by July 25 for more than an 82 percent response rate. The nine states that did not respond were not contacted for additional information. The study and findings were completed in August 1988.

FINDINGS

Presently, Extension field staff employees are selected for technical subject matter competency and less than 12 semester hours of communication courses. They receive less than two weeks of orientation , more than seven days per year of follow-up training and are visited one time by their supervisor during the orientation period (Table 1).

By analyzing the respondents' answers to the desired criteria for selection, orientation, and follow-up training, the determination can be made that Extension field staff should be selected for technical skill competency, have 12 - 15 hours of communication courses, more than two months orientation training, between seven and 12 days per year of follow-up training, and be visited by the supervisor two or three times per month during the orientation period. However it can be noted that those selecting for teaching skills showed a significant increase from 7 percent to 15 percent, which may illustrate an increasing trend towards selection for teaching competency in the future (Table 2).

Nine of the 42 respondents were using a formal mentoring system as an active means of training and orienting new personnel. Sixty-six percent of those using a formal mentoring system believe the mentor should have a Master's degree, six to ten years of experience and five days of mandated formal training once every five years. Ninety-four percent of the respondents believed a formal mentoring system would enhance the training and orientation of new employees, but less than 45 percent believed the mentor should be compensated for the extra work (Table 3).

By comparing corresponding questions on the questionnaire concerning criteria for selection and orientation training, one can determine what changes, if any, should be made in the present system to insure the employment of highly trained and qualified personnel (Table 4). It was determined that there is a need to place more emphasis on communication courses as a selection criteria and that supervisory visits during the orientation period are necessary. Of the respondents presently using a formal mentoring system, all were pleased with the present criteria used in the mentor section process. The need for different types of available training for mentors was illustrated by the low correlation figure by the same group of respondents.

SUMMARY

Extension educators are but one small segment of the adult educator community. However, a few conclusions may be made from this study that crosses several groups within the adult education community. Though adult educators are selected for their subject matter expertise, there may be a trend toward selection for teaching and communication skills. Orientation and follow-up training is essential for adult educators. This may be combined with a mentoring system which should have some very definite guidelines for the mentor. Supervisory visits are still preferred for success of new adult educators.

Table 1
Present Criteria or Selection and Training of New Extension Field Staff

Questions	Responses/(in percent)			
Basis for Selection:	More technical skill 50.00	More teaching skill 7.14	50% technical 50% teaching 35.7	other 7.14
Communication Courses Required:	less than 12 credits 92.5	12 - 15 credits 7.50	16 -18 credits 00.00	more than 18 credits 00.00
Orientation length:	less than 2 weeks 38.10	2 weeks to 1 month 23.81	1 month to 2 months 4.76	more than 2 months 33.33
Follow-up training:	less than 2 days/yr. 29.73	2 - 4 days/yr. 21.62	5 - 7 days/yr. 18.92	more than 7 days/yr. 29.73
Supervisory orientation visit:	0 times per month 10.26	1 time per month 46.15	2 - 3 times per month 25.64	more than 3 times/month 17.95

Table 2
Desired Criteria for Selection and Training of New Extension Field Staff

Questions	Responses/(in percent)			
Basis for selection:	more technical skill	more teaching skill	50% technical 50% teaching	other
	50.00	15.00	22.5	12.50
Communication Courses required:	less than 12 credits	12 - 15 credits	16 - 18 credits	more than 18 credits
	31.71	43.9	9.76	14.63
Orientation length:	less than 2 weeks	2 weeks to 1 month	1 month to 2 months	more than 2 months
	14.63	24.39	21.95	39.02
Follow-up training:	less than 12 days/yr.	12 - 24 days/yr.	25 - 36 days/yr.	more than 37 days/yr.
	57.50	37.5	2.50	2.50
Supervisory orientation visit:	0 times per month	1 time per month	2 - 3 times per month	more than 3 times/month
	0.00	40.48	40.48	19.05

Table 3
Present and Desired Qualifications for Mentors

Question	Response (in percent)			
Degree Required:	None	B. S.	M. S.	Ph.D
Group I :	11.11	11.11	77.78	00.00
Group II:	18.42	10.53	71.05	00.00
Field Experience:	None	1 - 5 years	6 - 10 years	more than 10 years
Group I:	0.0	22.22	55.56	22.22
Group II:	2.56	23.08	56.41	17.95
Length Mandated Training:	1 - 5 days/yr.	6 - 10 days/yr.	11 - 15 days/yr.	more than 15 days/yr.
Group I:	80.00	20.00	00.00	00.00
Group II:	70.27	18.92	5.41	5.41
How Often Repeated:	1 - 5 years	6 - 10 years	more than 10 years	other
Group I:	50.00	25.00	00.00	25.00
Group II:	83.33	8.33	00.00	8.33

Group I = those presently using formal mentoring program as part of official training of new field staff
Group II = all respondents of the questionnaire

Table 4
Correlation Figures Between Correspondence Questions

Questions Compared	Correlation Coefficient	Number of Responses
1. First time applicants for Extension field staff positions are screened for: 22. First time applicants for Extension field staff positions should have:	.46	40
2. The amount of communication courses required for new Extension field staff is presently: 23. New Extension employees should have:	.36	39
3. The current orientation training period for new employee is: 24. The orientation period for new employees should be	.40	41
4. The expenses incurred during the orientation period is paid for by: 25. The expenses incurred during the orientation period should be paid by:	.61	40
8. The follow-up training for first year employees is offered: 26. Follow-up training for first year employees should be offered:	.55	35
9. During the orientation period, the new employee's Supervisor presently visits the new employee: 27. During the orientation period, the Supervisor should visit the new employee:	.29	39
14. Mentors for newly hired employees have: 28. What should the minimum degree requirements be to become a mentor?	.75	9
15. Mentors for newly hired employees have: 29. How much field experience should a mentor have?	.88	9
16. If formal training mentors is required, what type of training is provided? 31. What type of formal training should be provided for mentors?	.24	6
17. The length of mandated training for mentors is: 32. The length of mandated training for mentors should be:	1.00	5
18. Mentor training is repeated every: 33. Mentor training should be repeated ever:	1.00	5

Modeling Continuing Professional Education: Implications for Research and Practice

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Abstract

Modeling Continuing Professional Education: Implications for Research and Practice

Continuing professional education has evolved as specialty educational programing for colleges, universities, and associations. The provision of educational services for professionals has become a major life-line for many institutions. Those responsible for the development and administration of such programs can benefit from the application of continuing education models in the design, development, and conduct of continuing professional education.

Although, modeling techniques have been utilized toward facilitation of adult learning and in the design of organizational structures, little application of such techniques is evident in the area of programing for continuing professional education. The utilization of models is supportive to modern systems of management and program development. Models can provide the support for excellence, the protection of learner rights, and the maintenance of stability during times of extreme change.

The basic components of a five year continuing education plan are presented through a tested model of continuing professional education. Components include: administrative, assessment, formal education, delivery matrix, learning levels, standard of excellence, and continuing education plan.

Modeling Continuing Professional Education: Implications for Research and Practice

Continuing professional educators can use models in a variety of ways. Models can help us identify and sharpen our beliefs about the most appropriate learning environments for adults, they can help us organize continuing education programs, and they can help us identify learner motivation for participation in continuing professional education. Models help researchers in the analysis of continuing education and they can help practitioners in the design, development, and conduct of educational programs for adults. In this respect a model of continuing professional education may be exemplary by exhibiting an excellence appropriate to serving the educational needs of specific professions.

The importance of developing appropriate mission statements, institutional policy, and heuristic models for continuing professional education is often overlooked by practitioners. The formulation and application of continuing education models as a part of an organization's program implementation agenda has received less attention by professional adult and continuing educators than that given to mission and policy development, another area of infrequent attention (Oaklief, 1987).

This paper addresses the growing awareness of the increasing need for a planned approach to professional development and the critical role which continuing education specialists play as facilitators in this endeavor (Cevero, 1988). The application of comprehensive models offers a critical approach for excellence in the evolution of continuing professional education.

Historical Review-

One of the earliest and most widely known modeling applications of human endeavor is exemplified in the organization chart. The organization chart models the perceived structure of the organization, its mission, departmentation, functions, and the relationship of its human resource responsibilities. The application of models in the planning and scheduling of adult/continuing education programs include such diverse methodologies as network analysis, milestone charts, and Program Evaluation and Review Techniques (PERT). Such models assist administrators and program managers with the adult education enterprize as suggested by Knox (1980).

Benefits of Modeling-

Proponents of organizational design have agreed that the desired functions and productivity of continuing education is not limited to a specific organizational structure. Primary functions needed for success can be executed by departmentation that differs greatly in organizational structures (Strother &

Klaus, 1982).

The relevancy of model building for learning-how-to-learn by Smith (1987) suggests that such constructs foster unified conversation about a particular topic, provide a framework for continuing work over time, reflect a synthesis over what is known about a subject, provide a descriptive format for debate and discussion, and provide a contextual framework for the various constructs of learning.

Benefits of modeling continuing professional education are evident in program reconstruction. Although, the redesigning of institutional activities (reconstruction) may follow a similar process to the original development, evaluation, or revision process, the procedures needed in basic redesign of educational activities require a depth of approach which is not easily illustrated or sketched according to Houle (1978). The application of modeling major program reconstruction offers the educator avenues for progress limited only by the sophistication and degree of access afforded by a given model. The application of reconstruction for institutions is more difficult than for individual, group. or mass activities due to the organizations greater diversity of individuals, wider spectrum of opinions, and greater degree of creativity according to Houle (1978).

Model Analysis-

Basic assumptions relative to the use of models in continuing professional education will reflect the various values and philosophy of the educators and their respective institutions (Boyle, 1981). Considerations may include: (1) the basic desire among educators to provide for excellence in continuing education programming, (2) the opportunity for learners to maximize their learning through equality and availability of learning activities, (3) the provision for maintaining stability in the delivery organization and methodology while encouraging optimum change, and (4) the synthesis of felt and real learner needs with both realistic and ideal performance goals (Oaklief, 1987).

A Five Year Plan-

Components of a five year plan of professional continuing education may include a broad variety of educational functions. A basic model, however, would reflect those primary concerns and functions held to be essential for effective programs of continuing education and excellence in performance of professional responsibilities. A basic five year plan may include the following components: (1) administrative, (2) assessment, (3) formal education, (4) delivery matrix, (5) learning levels, (6) standard of excellence, and (7) personal continuing education plan.

Administrative Component-

The administrative component of the model reflects essential written commitment to the continuing education plan, statements of mission and scope, and policy relative to the operational aspects of financial and human resources. The assessment area may include procedures for performance evaluation and a self-planned learning profile. A profile allows an individual (1) the access to evaluation input relative to their performance, (2) the personal responsibility for identifying those areas for development, and (3) the selection of the most appropriate format for action.

Formal Education Component-

The formal education component identifies degree or certificate education experiences of the individual and provides a rationale and support for development or improvement of professional competencies. The formal education may or may not be supportive of the continuing education plan selected by an individual since the plan is designed along current or future responsibilities.

Delivery Matrix-

The delivery matrix provides graphic and supportive documentation relative to the subject area, academic level, and credentialing choices available to each learner. The number of courses or self-directed learning contracts is only limited by the resources of the sponsoring institution. The academic level reflects the individual's desired degree of instruction/learning in order to meet requirements of a specific performance area. The academic level also provides visualization of the range of learning opportunities between beginning, advanced, and refresher level competencies.

The model is driven by a commitment toward excellence in the performance of individual responsibilities and it provides a description of exemplary performance for the appropriate occupations. This ideal level of professional performance is projected as the long range goal for each individual. Excellence is defined through the application of the best possible performance of identified competencies for a particular position.

Continuing Education Plan-

The modeling of continuing professional education provides an agreed upon format for the pursuit of professional excellence. It does not guarantee success, but it raises appropriate questions on behalf of both the employee/learner and the employing institution relative to an individualized format for the improvement of competencies. The individual plan is reviewed and updated each year based on performance evaluations and self-assignment. Learning is oriented to milestone goals and objects at five year intervals.

Analysis-

The modeling process may be accomplished at various levels of sophistication. At best, application is systematic, deliberate, and provides a degree of stability for an otherwise nebulous situation. The modeling process sets forth several windows through which to view continuing professional education. Clarification of the continuing education construct is one example. The model discussed assumes that continuing professional education is (1) associated with competency development in a professional or occupational field, (2) perceived as following formal education, (3) revealed as a continuing or lifelong process, and (4) considered to be managed by the employee/learner rather than of the superior or institution.

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ABSTRACT

Title: Intentional Culture Change By Managers Within An Organization:
A Multiple Case Study Analysis

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Summary:

The purpose of the research study described in this paper was to better understand the patterns, processes, and learning involved in the organizational culture change of management groups.

This purpose was achieved by examining the change process of three management groups that had substantial overall success in changing their organizational culture. Each group was from a semi-independent facility of a company engaged in a company-wide change in corporate culture. The study was based on interviews, observation, and document review. The data were used in a cross-case analysis.

The investigation revealed that the two management groups that actively pursued goals that impacted all levels of culture change (assumptions, values, norms, and behaviors) were considerably more successful than the management group that pursued goals primarily relating to the behavior level. The study also found a strong linkage between a change process based upon the Lewin-Schein theory, characterized by its unfreeze, change, and refreeze phases, and the successful culture change of a management group. It appears that the closer the change process follows Schein's change phases, the more successful the culture change. The study also suggested that the following variables are critical to the success of the culture change:

1. The degree to which the management group can make a discernible break with past practices,

2. The comprehensiveness of the initial change project, and

3. The extent of the proactive involvement of the head of the organization in all aspects of the change.

The results of the study should prove helpful to individuals who are charged with the responsibility of leading an organizational culture change effort. Guidelines for this change, developed as an outcome of the research, should prove to be of substantial practical assistance to individuals leading this effort.

INTENTIONAL CULTURE CHANGE BY MANAGERS WITHIN AN ORGANIZATION: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

Introduction

Our organizations are discovering that they live in an ever-more turbulent world, one that tends to produce an uncertain operating environment. As a result, many organizations have been reviewing, and frequently adjusting, their organizational mission and strategy. These changes, however, have the potential to cause great frustration among all of the organization's members, a situation that in turn can cause the change effort to fail, unless there is a corresponding change in the organizational culture. Thus, with increasing frequency, organizations are seeking to make planned changes in their culture.

Any change in an organization's culture will require that each organizational group learn the behaviors, norms, values, and basic assumptions that characterize the new culture. While all groups must accomplish these learnings, it is particularly critical that the management group effectively and efficiently learn all facets of the new culture. This is because the management of the organization is the one group that must become aware of the need for a culture change, actually go through the culture change themselves, and lead the change effort of all of the other groups in the organization.

The problem, however, is that this type of change within the management group typically occurs in a very haphazard fashion. This ineffective, trial-and-error learning will at least seriously hinder the needed organizational transformation. Thus, there has been a pressing need for a more systematic learning process that will facilitate cultural change across the management group. This paper will address this need by describing the results of a study that has resulted in a better understanding of the patterns, processes, and learning involved in the organizational culture change of management groups.

The Research Study

The study examined the change process of three management groups that had substantial, but varying, overall success at changing their organizational culture. Two of the groups were judged by their senior management and the change agent team to have had great success in changing their cultures; the third group was judged to have had only moderate success. Each group was based in semi-independent mechanical shop, part of a railroad that was engaging in corporate culture change. The shops were all located in the state of Iowa, and contained between 100 and 300 employees.

The study followed a case study methodology, and was based on interviews, observation, and document review. The raw data was verified at each of the shops, analyzed by the researcher, and developed into a case report. In turn, the case study report was reviewed by key informants at each shop and then analyzed in-depth by the researcher. After the three case studies were completed, a cross-case analysis was made and the final conclusions were drawn.

In order to meet the criteria of dependability and confirmability for qualitative studies, the researcher established an "audit trail" of the records and materials used in the study. The trail demonstrates the careful links drawn between the research questions and the protocol, the protocol and the field experience, the field experience and the data, and, finally, between the data and the conclusions.

Initial Research Results

The study first examined the shop goal-setting process, and found it had a critical impact on the success of the change effort. Each shop was at least nominally committed to attaining the following overall corporate goals:

1. Give all employees the freedom necessary to be able to successfully meet the needs of their "internal customers".
2. Encourage and recognize teamwork.
3. Encourage and recognize innovation.
4. Address problems and concerns of employees through open communication, particularly through attentive listening.

However, not all of these goals were consciously pursued in each shop. The two more successful shops (the Engine and Caboose shops) pursued goals that included changing some basic assumptions of the management group; however, the less successful shop (the Car shop) pursued goals that stopped at the value level of culture change. Thus, the more successful shops sought to achieve goals that would require members of the management group to make a complex change in their philosophy as to how people should be supervised. The less successful shop, in contrast, pursued goals which primarily required the management group to make simpler changes in supervisory behaviors and norms.

Varying Success in Meeting Corporate Change Goals

The first corporate goal dealt with job enrichment, e. g., giving each employee both more authority and responsibility. Both the Engine and Caboose shops managed to expand most employee jobs to help provide this enrichment, which often resulted in direct improvement in the quality and productivity of the employee. At the Car shop, there was no evidence of substantial job enrichment.

The second corporate goal suggested that more emphasis be placed on both formal and informal teamwork. The Caboose shop made such strides toward this goal that large groups of employees became practically autonomous work units. Although the Engine shop did not consciously pursue this goal, it did have great success with a project that involved sub-groups of employees from the entire shop. The Car shop did not consciously pursue this goal; it had rather mixed success with its limited use of project teams.

The third corporate goal suggested that managers take an active role in encouraging employee input concerning ways to improve the shop operation. All three shops consciously pursued this goal. Both the Engine and Caboose shops succeeded in doing an improved job of reacting to employee input and in aggressively seeking additional input. The Car shop also did a better job of reacting to employee ideas; however, there was little evidence of the shop management proactively seeking their ideas.

The fourth corporate goal implied that systematic means should be established so that barriers to effective employee performance could be identified and dealt with. Both the Engine and the Car shops consciously worked towards and had success meeting this goal. The Caboose shop also had considerable success in overcoming barriers to employee performance.

In summary, both the Engine and the Caboose shops had considerable success in meeting the corporate change goals; the Car shop had limited success in meeting these goals.

The Management Change Process

The second set of results dealt with the specific change process of the management group. The study found a strong linkage between a change process based upon the Lewin-Schein (Lewin, 1947; Schein, 1964) change model and the successful transformation of a management group. It appears that the closer the change process follows Schein's change phases, the more successful the culture change.

Within the "unfreezing" phase, it was clear that members of the management groups had to first realize that there must be a substantial altering of their traditional roles. One means of accomplishing this realization was to make the management group aware of the severe consequences of inaction, such as the closure of their facility. Another means of "jolting" the management group was to replace the head of the organizational unit with an individual who had an operating philosophy consistent with the needed changes. The new leader communicated new role expectations through personal meetings with each member of the management group.

After they understood the absolute necessity for change, the management group had to be convinced that its proposed new relationship with employees was workable and attainable. This was achieved by implementation of successful pilot projects that impacted virtually all employees in the work unit. The management group was able to see that the basic assumptions underlying the change effort were indeed valid. This provided the group with a substantial degree of "psychological safety"; the perceived barriers to the change effort were considerably lowered and thus it was "safer" to consider making a personal change. This step was so critical to the success of the change effort that it suggests those responsible for the change should construct such a pilot project where no obvious one exists.

Once the management group had its culture "unfrozen", it was time to learn the new culture. This "change" phase was best accomplished through the mechanism of the role model. In both of the more successful changes, the management group was able to observe the head of the organizational unit modeling, with shopcraft employees, the most critical behaviors involved in the change effort. In an outstanding example, one shop superintendent spent up to a quarter of his time soliciting ideas from employees at their work stations. Throughout this modeling process, the organizational head based his behaviors upon the basic assumptions and values inherent in the culture change. This technique apparently had a powerful impact upon the overall management transformation process. The management group members were able to see what the new culture "looked like" in their own work areas, with their own people. The provision of these concrete examples greatly aided the learning of the new culture.

At this point, the managers were ready to try out activities that were consistent with the espoused new culture. Now in the Lewin-Schein "reinforcement" phase, the more successful managers experienced both of the reinforcing mechanisms espoused by Schein. The managers seized upon several types of opportunities to test their new approach to employees. Sometimes the managers led formal project teams that involved all employee levels; at other times, they implemented informal suggestions from employees. Often they would involve employees in highly interactive meetings. It appeared that the more opportunities there were for practicing the new approaches, the more effective was the transformation effort.

The second "reinforcement" mechanism was in effect whenever "significant others" confirmed the initial successes of the transformation effort. An example occurred when the board of directors met at one of the locations that was experiencing early success with the change effort. The management group at the location believed that this visit signified renewed confidence by senior management in their capabilities.

It also appeared that some degree of self-confirmation assisted the internalization of the change. Managers often found that the successful implementation of activities associated with the new culture made their jobs easier. Thus, it became very easy and logical for them to build the new activities into their everyday behavior. The effective use of all these reinforcement mechanisms was clearly associated with stabilization of the culture change across the management group.

Critical Variables

The study also isolated several variables that appear to be critical to the success of the culture change. The first variable is the degree to which the management group can make a "clean break" with the past. Perhaps the cleanest break can be made when a new organizational head is appointed, particularly when that individual is from outside the organization and has a management style philosophically consistent with the proposed organizational change.

A second critical variable is the comprehensiveness of the initial change project used within the organization. The project should involve as much of the organization as possible, should be conducted using the principles underlying the culture change, and should have the highest potential for success.

A third critical variable is the extent of the proactive involvement of the head of the organization in all aspects of the change. It is not sufficient for the organizational head to merely reward the management group for taking the right actions. Nor is it sufficient to use the chain of command to implement the culture change. The organizational head must interact with people from as many levels as possible, modeling the new relationship between management and those being managed.

Guidelines for Intentional Culture Change Across a Management Group

Based upon the results of this study, the following guidelines should assist those responsible for the intentional culture change of a management group:

1. Explain to all the absolute necessity of the culture change.
2. Clearly define the operational goals of the change effort. Show the management group how each goal relates to the assumptions, values, norms, and behaviors that are the basis for the new culture.
3. Clearly define the new roles of management under the new culture.
4. Provide a common experience that demonstrates to all the feasibility of the proposed changes.
5. Have the senior manager spend substantial time proactively modeling the expected behaviors involved in the change.
6. Provide multiple opportunities for the management group to practice the new behaviors.
7. Follow up the successful implementation of change with recognition that is meaningful to those who have completed the change.

Summary

This study suggests that intentional organizational culture change can be managed. In particular, the study indicates that members of the management group can be transformed through the application of the Lewin-Schein model to the process of organizational culture change. While of immediate practical aid to change agents, the guidelines suggested by the study could be elaborated and refined by further research into the complex process of organizational culture change.

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A Needs Analysis Conducted for the Service Training Department of Cummins Engine Company, Inc.

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Abstract

In the fall and winter of 1988 Maritz conducted a needs analysis for the Service Training Department of Cummins Engine Company. Cummins was feeling economic pressure typical of the durable goods industry. They believed that in order to compete in the future they would have to offer superior service quality. Suspecting that there might be trainable skill deficiencies in the field, Cummins commissioned Maritz to conduct a needs analysis for the distributor organization. This organization consists of loosely affiliated franchises that provide parts and service support and service training support for the Cummins product. Maritz Communications, Motivation and Marketing Research jointly implemented a survey of Distributor Principals and their personnel to confirm that training was needed, what needed improvement, and what kind of training delivery system would be acceptable. Parallel questionnaires confirmed the need for training and suggested a significant payback from training, the need to develop a curriculum, and a desire for hands-on and interactive videodisc training at the distributorships. In spite of financial difficulties, Cummins allocated budget to address these needs and is implementing a motivation program which provides recognition and rewards for improving service quality including improving the skills of service personnel by training.

A Needs Analysis Conducted for the Service Training Department of Cummins Engine Company, Inc.

In the fall and winter of 1988 Maritz conducted a Needs Analysis for the Service Training Department of Cummins Engine Company, Inc. The objective of this analysis was to determine what kind of a service training delivery system would be best for the Cummins Distributorship environment.

Background

Throughout the '80's Cummins had found itself in a position typical of established American durable goods manufacturers. Fierce competition from domestic and foreign sources had eroded market share from 65% to 52%; profitability had likewise declined to the point where Cummins posted a $50 million loss in the 4th Quarter of 1988 (on sales volume of about $750 million); and the company was rumored to be a takeover target of Daimler-Benz although it later turned out that the suitor was Hanson PLC.

Understandably, Cummins management was undergoing an agonizing self appraisal, especially with regard to the cost-effectiveness of its various departments.

Furthermore, it was the opinion of Cummins service management that in the 1990's, Federal emission control regulations would eliminate differences in performance between engines produced by different manufacturers. Therefore the only way to achieve product differentiation would be to offer better service support than the competition. Unfortunately studies they had conducted of warranty repairs did not support a claim of better service quality.

Cummins service management was beginning to ask if they needed to change their training strategy to adapt to changed conditions. The time seemed appropriate to conduct a needs analysis in order to develop reliable information on which to base decisions about implementing training. The concept of a needs analysis, as used in this paper, is defined in Mager and Pipe (1970). It means confirming that there is a performance problem, ruling out situational causes for the problem, and determining that there is a trainable skill deficiency that is at the root of the problem.

A further purpose of the study was to determine what kind of training would be accepted in the distributorships; that is, what the Distributor Principals would be willing to allocate resources to and what Service Technicians would spend time studying. Consideration was given to the following variables:

1) National, regional and local on-site and off-site locations.

2) Classroom, Hands-on, Interactive Video, Videotape, Slide-tape, and Print delivery formats.

3) Subject matter and specialization.

The Cummins distributorship environment is unique and must be described. Cummins makes diesel engines which are used in trucks, heavy equipment, emergency power generation, marine, and other applications. Most of the engines are used in trucks which are sold by truck dealerships; the customer gives the dealer an order for a truck with a particular engine, and the engines are installed at the truck factory.

In addition to the dealer network, Cummins maintains a network of 30 distributorships, each with one or more branches. A distributorship is a regional franchise with a mission to do some sales, provide field parts and service support for dealerships, provide service training support for dealerships, and to provide service for Cummins product.

Distributorships are largely autonomous. Although it is technically possible for a franchise to be revoked or for the distributor principal to abandon it, under the terms of the franchise agreement there are few requirements laid on the distributorships. Each develops its own way of doing things and each sets its own priorities, including the decisions of what kind of training is done, how much of it and when.

The attitude of the distributor principal tends to be reflected by the service managers and service technicians in the distributorship. The acceptance of training rests largely on its perceived value and good will on the part of the trainees. It is imperative that any training which is to be effective be perceived as cost-efficient, useful and usable.

Methodology

The first step was to develop objectives for the analysis. Without objectives a study tends to lose focus, time is wasted on unnecessary research, and findings are difficult to interpret. The objectives developed for the study were as follows:

1) Determine the value of service training to the Distributor's business.

2) Investigate the acceptance of service training delivery methods by Cummins Distributors.

3) Determine the awareness/usage of various delivery methods.

4) Determine the usefulness of Cummins training materials.

5) Identify problems that prevent Cummins service training from being effective.

6) Determine the Distributors' ratings of the effectiveness of the training they supply.

Note the order of these objectives. The issue of value is placed first in order to stress cost effectiveness. This stress biassed the issues of acceptance, awareness and usefulness in terms of tangible value received. It tended to deemphasize the "motherhood and apple pie" aspects of the training mystique.

Note also that while logically in a needs analysis obstacles to training effectiveness are ruled out first, in the sequence of objectives it comes toward the end. This allows avoidance of red herrings created by operating problems. If an investigation begins by asking, "What's wrong with the way your company does business?" it is unlikely ever to get down to anything as mundane as identifying trainable skill deficiencies.

Four populations were identified to be surveyed to make the determinations required by the objectives. They were as follows:

> All of the Distributor Principals and/or their Chief Operating Officers.
>
> All (200) Distributor Service Managers.
>
> Stratified random sample (500) of Distributorship Service Technicians.
>
> Stratified random sample (200) of Dealer Principals.

Questionnaires were developed for each of these populations based on the objectives. The questionnaires included between 52 and 62 questions. Most of the questions used in mail surveys were closed. That is, they asked for a limited set of predefined responses. In fact most questions were structured with three possible responses, typically a) very much, b) somewhat, and c) not at all. Free response questions are almost impossible to tabulate. Nevertheless, each questionnaire had two or three free response questions so that the respondents could express themselves and in case something significant had been overlooked in structuring the questionnaire.

The Distributor Principals were interviewed in person or by phone using a script which paralleled the mail surveys sent to the other populations. Returns from the mail surveys included 96 Service Managers, 246 Service Technicians, and 82 Dealer Principals. With the exception of the Dealers, then, the findings have some statistical weight and may suggest some generalizations which apply to manufacturers in related industries.

In tabulating the results the only demographic factor that was considered was job function. The fact is that it is impractical to develop different training modes for different ages or different areas of the country. It is, however, possible and practical to develop different curricula for specialists as opposed to journeymen.

The survey itself was an interdisciplinary effort. Cummins, Maritz Motivation, Maritz Communications, and Maritz Marketing Research employees collaborated on design of the project. The interviews were conducted by Motivation and Communications employees who understood conditions in the field. The surveys were tabulated and findings displayed by Maritz Marketing Research. Conclusions and recommendations were developed by Maritz Communications with input from the other organizations.

Findings

The outcome of the survey was a report of approximately four hundred pages in length. Space does not permit repeating all of the findings, but here are some of the high points.

1) Distributor Principals felt an obligation to conduct training but were not able to account for a specific return. However 66% of Service Managers believed their operation would benefit significantly with respect to profitability from a fully trained work force. 58% of Service Technicians indicated they needed more training to be able to perform their jobs to time standards. This seems to confirm the existence of a performance problem and strongly suggests the possibility of developing cost accounting for training results.

2) 66% of Technicians indicated a need for additional training in Overhaul Skills (basic) and 58% indicated a need for training in Electronics (advanced).

3) There was a consensus preference for training at the distributorship. In all cases Service Technicians preferred hands-on training with an instructor, but Service Managers preferred interactive videodisc training for electronics theory and electronic products. The advantage of interactive videodisc is that it can be scheduled as needed or in down time.

4) Obstacles to training were lack of time and money. This seems to support the preferences for training on a local basis. Another issue was general uncertainty as to criteria as to who needed what training and when. This uncertainty tended to delay decisions to train.

Results

One hundred copies of the report were produced and distributed. Distributor Principals were polled and confirmed that the report did accurately portray their needs.

The jury is still out on the effectiveness of Cummins response to the situation revealed by the needs analysis. This much can be reported:

At a time of cutbacks and austerity the Service Training Department did receive authorization to increase staff to enable curriculum development. It also received budget to develop additional interactive videodisc training. The videodisc systems have been upgraded and more videodiscs are being developed.

Cummins has inaugurated a motivation program in the distributorships. The focus of this program is to create service excellence by recognizing distributorships that meet certain criteria and by providing recognition and tangible reinforcement for their personnel. Among these criteria is heavy emphasis on training. Each distributorship must develop a training plan, conduct a minimum number of hours of training, see to it that technicians are qualified in Overhaul Skills and that selected technicians go through a specified set of Electronics training programs.

Cummins has been showing a small profit and is no longer seriously regarded as a takeover candidate. This cannot be attributed to changes in Service Training, but perhaps it suggests a generally more coherent organizational approach to business by a forward-looking business.

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AN EXAMINATION
OF
LEARNING STYLES OF COUNTY OFFICIALS

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ABSTRACT

The literature reveals that many local officials who have a relatively high awareness and concern about a major issue such as earthquakes still do very little about it. This study examined how local public officials learn (i.e. interact and process information), and how this learning translates into placing issues on their agenda for action.

A research methodology of ethnographic interviewing was chosen. Each of the three county commissioners in four rural counties were interviewed, were observed for a day, and were interviewed again to confirm the hypotheses that emerged from the first round of interviews and observations.

Three different learning styles of the county commissioners emerged: experience-based, information-based, and constituency-based learning. The experience-based commissioner learns about issues through his or experience; if he/she hasn't experienced it, it is not real, or relevant. The information-based commissioner responds to information. The constituent-based commissioner learns about what is important through his/her constituents - if they are not concerned, it is not an issue worth considering.

These research findings have practical results. A failure to understand the learning styles of one's intended audience and to tailor one's educational approach accordingly is likely to lead to failure.

Although a variety of factors were posited as leading to the above results, a major theoretical question is raised and not addressed by Drabek et. al. and similar studies: why don't public officials take action with respect to earthquake mitigation, even when they seem quite aware of the earthquake threat? A lack of information about policy alternatives and low public awareness certainly contribute to this dynamic, but do not provide compelling answers to this question. The literature reveals that agenda setting at the micro level is kind of a black box issue - somehow it just happens (or doesn't happen).

METHODOLOGY

Because this research effort sought to explore the gap between rhetoric and action for local officials, a research methodology of ethnographic interviewing was chosen, in which informants (rather than survey respondents) were encouraged to describe their own perspectives on earthquake preparedness, how they process information (i.e. learn), and how they place issues on the agenda for action. The emphasis was on exploring an area in depth with a few informants rather than using a predetermined survey format to interview a sample of a given population.

Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 8) describe the two most salient features of naturalistic inquiry (ethnography) as 1) no manipulation on the part of the inquirer, and 2) the inquirer imposes no a priori units on the outcome. This fits with Dooley's definition of exploratory research, being research begun without specific hypotheses but only a general question (1984, p. 273). It was for this very reason that ethnography was chosen as methodology - because there is a gap between rhetoric and action, a research method was needed to elicit from the actors involved what it means to them, how they construct their reality, and how this affects agenda building for earthquake preparedness.

The unit of analysis for this study was that of county commissions, the elected and ruling body for counties in Missouri. County commissioners were chosen because, as indicated in the literature review, a joint effort is required for emergency preparedness, and the weakest link in intergovernmental emergency preparedness efforts is local government.

For this study, each of the three county commissioners in each of four rural counties were interviewed. The interviews were taped with the permission of the interviewees. To provide checks on the data, each of the commissions was observed for a day, and the respective county emergency preparedness directors were interviewed. A second round of interviewing each of the county commissioners strongly confirmed the hypotheses that emerged from the first round of interviews and observations.

RESULTS

The first major theme that emerged was that the county commissioners have different learning styles, or ways of learning about an issue. These learning styles include assumptions about what is the most reliable basis for decision making: one's own experience, information (which usually includes experience but is not limited to it), or the desires of one's constituency.

Experience-based individuals place primary emphasis on their experience; they learn primarily through experience, and what they have experienced has a strong influence on what they perceive as problems, what gets on their action agenda, and what solutions they consider. The experience-based individual favors real, personal experience, although talking to someone else who has had real, personal experience with an issue or problem may suffice (depending on who it is). This individual is usually leery about academic information, and has well formulated notions of when you do or do not go along with your constituency, based on his/her experience. Experience-based individuals are usually not very interested in education.

Information-based individuals place high value on studies, books, seminars, expertise of professionals, and research. Experience is also valued, but is considered only one source of information. Furthermore, a lack of personal experience on a particular issue will not hinder an information-based individual from acting if solid information is available. Overall priorities will be set based on the information available, which may conflict with particular constituent groups.

Constituency-based individuals place great value on the knowledge and wisdom of their constituencies. Information and experience are usually factors in decision making, but are secondary to the wishes of the constituency. For constituency based individuals, what they perceive as desires of their constituencies has a strong influence on what they perceive as problems, what gets on their action agenda, and what solutions they consider.

Dimensions of these three learning styles are further explicated on the following table. Of course these are ideal types, and individuals in the real world rarely fit into each of these categories neatly. Nevertheless, this study found that each informant, and consequently each commission, portrayed a propensity to favor one of the above learning styles over the others. Another way to view these learning styles is that individuals with these different learning styles would pursue different strategies to examine whether an issue is worthy of consideration.

A TYPOLOGY OF LEARNING STYLES PERTINENT TO COUNTY EMERGENCY PREPAREDNESS

Information Based Learning Style	Experience Based Learning Style	Constituency Based Learning Style
Utilizes training & information as its reference point	Utilizes personal experience as its reference point	Utilizes the wishes of its constituency as its reference
One's horizon is limited only by the available information	One's horizon is limited by his/her experience	One's horizon is limited to the needs of the constituency
Tends to be formal, legal, and impersonal	Tends to be informal and casual	Tends to be personal based on relationships
Is reponsive to new information	Is resonsive to those things that fit with one's own experience	Is responsive to the constituency
Conducts rational planning for the future, based on solid information	May plan for the future, but is an extension of past experience	May plan for the future if desired by or for the constituency
Is vulnerable to having inadequate information, or ignoring the wishes of constituents	Is vulnerable in issues outside the realm of one's experience	Is vulnerable in issues or problems not of concern to the constituency
Is usually proactive	May be proactive in traditional matters, but is reactive to new issues & concerns	May be proactive in matters of concern to the constituency
Motto: We won't do it unless we have good information that it can be done and is worth doing	Motto: If we haven't experienced it, it is not a real problem (or a real potential)	Motto: We find out what the constituents want and try to give it to them

One of the dynamics pertinent to the constituency-based individuals is that they are usually attuned to particular constituencies, not everyone who lives in their political jurisdiction.

A second major theme that emerged from this study was that county commissions operate within a culture of reasonableness and consensus. Requests were considered unreasonable if they were beyond the scope of the commissions, or did not fulfill other criteria. Consensus was highly valued in the commissions, as all 57 issues considered by the county commissions during the observation periods were settled by consensus, with no dissenting votes. Furthermore, there were only two issues that came up in which there was serious disagreement, and in both of these instances, that commission chose not to act rather than to force a vote which would have resolved the issue.

APPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS TO PRACTICE

These research findings have direct and practical results. Providing good information to constituency-based or experience-based public officials is not likely to have any effect, and is one explanation of the gap between rhetoric and action revealed in the literature. Additional research might yield a learning style assessment guide which could be used with any audience, thus allowing educators to design learning experiences appropriate to those learning styles.

Absent of that assessment, educators seeking to have an impact on important public issues might logically seek to design learning experiences appropriate to all three learning styles, by educating the public, providing good information, and relating this issue to the experience of the policy makers in as direct a manner as possible. Covering these three bases would have the maximum impact, particularly in an environment governed by consensus, in which one commissioner has in effect a veto over actions to be taken by the commission as a whole.

A second assessment that educators might logically undertake would be to discover if a given situation is governed by a culture of reasonableness and consensus, and what are the values undergirding that culture. The commissioner - informants made it quite clear that this was very important to them, and that they spend considerable time educating the public about the boundaries of reasonableness in county government. However, the boundaries of reasonableness return us to the learning styles and the critical role they play in determining what is important, and therefore what is reasonable.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE: RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PREFERENCE FOR EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE, SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING, INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS, AND ACHIEVEMENT

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The purpose of this study was to generate information about possible relationships among preference for educational structure (e.g. high or low educational structure), self-directed learning, instructional methods (lecture or module), and achievement.

The study was designed to use both the experimental and correlational models to analyze these variables. The experimental model is a 2 x 2 Randomized Block Posttest Only Design. Five research questions guided the study.

It was found that: (a) there was a statistically significant inverse linear relationship between preference for educational structure and self-directed learning (r = .3081, p = .027); (b) there was no relationship between self-directed learning and achievement (p = .24); (c) neither of the instruments could successfully predict achievement at a statistically significant level (R Squared = .12), but the direction of the prediction was other than expected; (d) students who preferred high-structure had no statistically significant differences in achievement in either instructional method (t = -.53, p = .60), although the direction of the difference was of interest and (e) students who preferred low-structure had no statistically significant differences in achievement in either instructional method (t = 1.75; p = .099), although here too the direction of the difference was of interest. These unexpected outcomes found in this study were opposite to what has been assumed for years and found in the literature.

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PREFERENCE FOR EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE, SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING, INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS AND ACHIEVEMENT

Upon completion of the traditional educational process, the adult coordinates family and work as a part of every day life. Many authorities (Brookfield, 1981; Coolican, 1973; Cross, 1981; Hiemstra, 1975; Knowles, 1980; Penland, 1977; Peters & Gordon, 1974; Tough, 1968 & 1971) agree that in addition to these activities, adults initiate a variety of learning experiences to assist in the maintenance of their personal or professional lives. Educational providers for these adults have developed programs using a variety of instructional methods.

Knowles (1980) has said that the adult learner is self-directed and comes with past experiences which affect learning. From this, a logical speculation might be that the educational structure within which one learned as a child could in some way affect the requirements needed to learn successfully as an adult. In addition, it would seem reasonable to believe that successful self-directed learning might be influenced if essential requirements are missing or negatively altered.

Since Tough's (1968) seminal research, many studies have been conducted which examine various issues associated with the adult learner. However, little has been done to determine whether either learner preference for educational structure (high or low educational structure) or self-directed learning is associated with achievement using particular intructional methods which represent high and low structure settings. Five research questions guided this experimental study.

FRAMEWORK. Mocker and Spear (1980) utilized the concept of control to categorize and differentiate deliberate learning experiences associated with adults. Each type has two dimensions, the control of content and the control of process. A type of learning experience where the learner has little or no control over the content or the process is lecture (a high structure method). Another type of learning experience where the learner has no control over content, but has control over process is the module method (a low structured setting). In this study both of these instructional methods were used.

SAMPLE. The sample in this study was forty (40) female registered nurses who worked in one of eight community hospitals. The majority of the participants were between the ages of 26 and 50 with only three individuals over the age of 56. The typical participant was a full time staff nurse who had a basic education at the diploma level with no advanced degree.

INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS. The identical content for each instructional method was, "Blood Gas Interpretation for the Care of Patients with Acid-Base Imbalances". The module and lecture formats were designed by the investigator. Learning experiences for the modular method included options of: reading material, audio-tapes, self-evaluation tests, case study analysis, and one to one clarification with the instructor (the investigator). The three-hour lecture included the following learning experiences: didactic, discussion, audiovisuals, handouts, and student analysis of case studies. The presentor was the investigator. A content specific posttest was given at the end of the instructional method to each participant.

INSTRUMENTS. The posttest was a fifty item content specific examination designed by the investigator. Content validity of this instrument was determined by a panel of three nurse experts in both test construction and blood-gas interpretation. Internal consistency reliability was established at 0.74.

The Reaction to Statements (RTS) was used to measure preference for educational structure. The use of the RTS in studies found its reliability to range from 0.77 to 1.0 (Berlin, 1965; Bunt, 1978; Jones, Turner,Ginther, Brandt, Slowie, & Lauger, 1979; Shaw, 1977). Although specific instructions for scoring the instrument were described, no guidelines were provided which distinguished high-structure scores from low-structure scores (Wiley, 1981). To determine a logical breakpoint, a pilot (n = 46) was conducted prior to this study. Based on these results, a breakpoint was determined. After 26 subjects had completed the study requirements, these data were compared to the data generated in the pilot study to ensure that both samples were drawn from the same population. Based upon these results, the breakpoint was adjusted.

The Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) was used to measure self-directed learning. This instrument was developed using a modified Delphi technique and resulted in a 58 item Likert-type scale. The instrument's reliability was calculated at 0.87 (Guglielmino, 1977). Since that time, one other study was conducted which found the same reliability (Brockett, 1985). While two studies have been conducted which support construct validity (Mourad and Torrance, 1979; Torrance and Mourad, 1978), there have been inconclusive findings for its predictive validity (Crook, 1985; Long & Agyekum, 1983).

DESIGN. This study was designed to use both the experimental and correlational models to analyze the variables. The experimental design was a 2 x 2 Randomized Block, Posttest Only Design. The score of the RTS was used to randomly assign participants to the instructional method (lecture or module). The independent variable was instructional method and dependent variable was achievement as measured by the posttest. With the correlational model, the investigator looked at the relationship of preference for educational structure as measured by the RTS and self-directed learning as measured by the SDLRS. The relationship between self-directed learning (SDLRS) and achievement (posttest) was also examined. Demographic data were collected to describe the sample. Appropriate statistics were conducted to analyze these data.

RESULTS. It was found that there was a statistically significant, although slight, inverse linear correlation (r = -.3081, p = .027) between preference for educational structure and self-directed learning. This finding is consistent with the literature and would support the idea that as the need for structure becomes greater, the readiness for self-directed learning becomes less (Fromm, 1941; Stern, et al, 1973; Wiley, 1981).

While it was also found that neither the RTS or the SDLRS could successfully predict achievement, individually the direction of the prediction was other than expected. The direction of the prediction with the RTS was toward the modular method (R squared = .10) rather than the lecture method (R squared = .01). Moreover, the direction of the prediction with the SDLRS was toward the lecture method (R squared = .07) rather than the modular method (R squared = .004). Given Mocker and Spear's (1980) concept of control for each of the instructional methods and the target of measurement for each of the instruments, the opposite finding would seem more logical. This was not the case. Although no conclusions can be drawn, it does pose some interesting questions about instructional methods in terms of structure and control. An analysis of the instructional methods used in this study revealed that both methods had the students involved in their learning. This finding would support those of Dorsey and Pierson (1984) who concluded that individuals between the ages of 18 and 49 prefer an active role in learning.

Moreover, it was determined that those participants labeled as low-structure did not achieve statistically better (t = 1.75, p = .099) in either the lecture or the modular method although the results did approach significance which is important to point out in light of the small sample (n = 13). For those participants labeled as high-structure it was likewise determined that the group (n = 27) did not achieve statistically better (t = -.53, p = .60) in either instructional method. Here too the direction of the difference was other than expected. For those labeled as high-structure, the mean from the content specific posttest for the lecture group was lower ($\overline{x}$ = 85.8) than the mean for the modular group ($\overline{x}$ = 88). Likewise, for those labeled as low-structure, the mean for the lecture group was higher ($\overline{x}$ = 88.7) than the mean for the modular group ($\overline{x}$ = 81.3). These findings raise questions about the precision of the category separation of the RTS and about the structure of the instructional methods.

Last, no relationship was found between the SDLRS and achievement (p = .24). Although inconsistent with the literature (Savoie, 1979), the importance is unknown.

Although this study did not provide definitive answers to complex issues surrounding adult learners, it did provide new insight to these variables. It is recommended that more experimental studies be conducted with larger samples to verify these outcomes. It is hoped that these results will provide seeds for thought and research which will better enable educators to serve the adult learner.

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TRADITIONAL AND REENTRY WOMEN NURSING MAJORS: MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS, VOCATIONAL PERSONALITIES, BARRIERS AND ENABLERS TO PARTICIPATION

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The purpose of the study was to determine whether the motivational factors, vocational personalities, barriers to enrollment, and enabling factors of the reentry women nursing majors were different from those women nursing majors of traditional college age. Participants in the study were female nursing majors from all four grade levels of a baccalaureate nursing program at one midwestern university.

The Chain-of-Response Model (Cross, 1981) was adapted as a conceptual framework for the study. The sample consisted of 46 reentry women and 73 traditional college age women nursing majors. The Education Participation Scale (Boshier, 1982) and The Vocational Preference Inventory (Holland, 1985) were utilized. Barriers to Enrollment and Enabling Factors questionnaires were compiled by the researcher after a review of the literature and interviews with ten reentry women and ten traditional age women nursing majors. The qualitative data were used to strengthen the study by triangulation with quantitative data.

FINDINGS

1. The reentry women differed from the traditional age women in terms of motivational factors. The reentry women were found to be less motivated by social contact and more motivated by social stimulation than the traditional age women nursing majors.

2. Differences in vocational personality were found on two scales of The Vocational Preference Inventory (Holland, 1985): (a) The reentry women scored higher on scale 11, Acquiescence, and (b) The traditional age women scored higher on scale 7, Self-Control. Both groups scored highest on the Social Scale.

3. Barriers to enrollment that were of greater importance to the reentry women included: cost of college, other responsibilities, fear of failure, arranging for child care, attitudes toward education by family of origin and significant others. Barriers that were of greater importance to the traditional age women included: leaving home and friends and being tired of attending school.

4. Enabling factors that were of greater importance to the reentry women included: encouragement from husbands and from college personnel, a change in responsibilities at home, a change in priorities, making a decision on a career in nursing, and deciding they could get a degree in nursing if they really tried. Enabling factors that were of greater importance to the traditional age women included the support of significant others.

TRADITIONAL AND REENTRY WOMEN NURSING MAJORS: MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS, VOCATIONAL PERSONALITIES, BARRIERS AND ENABLERS TO PARTICIPATION

Introduction

More and more adult learners are becoming involved in higher education. Educators need to know more about the differences between the traditional age college students and the adult learners so that the adult learners can be assisted in the reentry process. The study sought to determine whether the motivational factors, vocational personalities, barriers to enrollment, and enabling factors of the reentry women majors were different from those women nursing majors of traditional college age.

Answers to the following research questions were sought:

1. Do reentry women nursing majors differ from traditional age women nursing majors in terms of motivational factors?
2. Do reentry women nursing majors differ from traditional age women nursing majors in terms of vocational personalities?
3. Do reentry women nursing majors differ from traditional age women nursing majors in terms of barriers to enrollment into a baccalaureate nursing program?
4. Do reentry women nursing majors differ from traditional age women nursing majors in terms of supports that enabled them to enroll in a baccalaureate nursing program?

Importance to the practice of adult education

With the decline in nursing major enrollment, successful student recruitment is a priority for many nursing schools today; but nursing as a profession has little experience in marketing or recruitment practices. Since all prospective students are not alike, it was important to identify their demographic, cultural, and social characteristics. A better understanding of the dynamics involved in the decision to attend college, the choice of nursing as a career, and barriers that were overcome provide data necessary for strategic market planning and lead to improved instruction and counseling of women students. Educational advising can be planned to best meet the needs of these women for academic, personal, and career development.

The study contributed to a better understanding of the motivations for women to enter college as nursing majors, their vocational personalities, barriers to enrollment, and factors that enable them to overcome the obstacles and enroll in a baccalaureate nursing program.

Methodology

A stratified random sample of 10 traditional age and 10 reentry women nursing majors were asked to respond to interviews regarding barriers and enabling factors. Responses to the interviews were used to construct the items on the instruments: Barriers to Enrollment and Enabling Factors. The qualitative data were also used to strengthen the study by triangulation with quantitative data.

To provide data to answer the research questions posed in the study all female nursing majors, who were not RN's, at one midwestern university, were asked to complete the following questionnaires: (a) a Personal Data Form, (b) Education Participation Scale (Boshier, 1982), (c) Vocational Preference Inventory (Holland, 1985), (d) Barriers to Enrollment, and (e) Enabling Factors. The questionnaires were voluntarily completed.

The four research quesions were tested using multivariate and univariate tests of significance. Decisions with regard to the statistical significance were made at the .05 level of confidence.

Description of the Sample

Of the 184 undergraduate nursing majors at one university, 125 voluntarily participated in the study. A total of 46 met the definition of the reentry woman nursing major. These women ranged in age from 22 years to 53 years. A total of 73 women nursing majors met the definition of traditional age nursing major.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study was adapted from K. Patricia Cross' (1981) Chain-of-Response Model. This model was designed to identify relevant variables in participation in adult learning and hypothesize their interelationships. The model is depicted in Figure 1.

Cross's model depicted the forces for participation in adult learning activities beginning with the individual and moving increasingly to external conditions. Self-evaluation (A) begins the process. The individual with confidence in his/her own abilities was more apt to be motivated to seek further education. Attitudes about education (B) arise from the individual's past experience in educational settings and indirectly from the attitudes of friends and "significant others." The linkage of (A) and (B) created in some people a challenge to experience new learnings. The adult who enjoyed school and did well was likely to develop a positive self-evaluation, which in turn contributed to doing well in school.

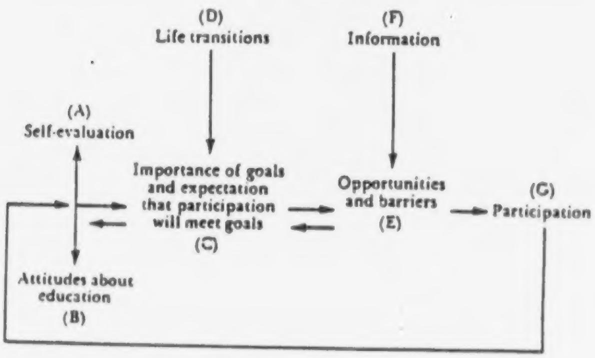
Point C, the importance of goals and expectation that goals will be met, was from the body of research on expectancy valence theory of motivation. If a goal that was important to a person was likely to be achieved through further education, then the motivation at point C was strong.

Life transitions (D) as positive forces for learning has received much recent attention in the literature. Adjusting to new phases of the life cycle was noted to be a motivation to participation in learning activities.

Barriers and special opportunities for adult learning (E) are thought to play an important role in the Chain-of-Response. Accurate information links motivated learners to opportunities as indicated by Point F in the model. In the absence of information, barriers loom large and opportunities are not discovered.

According to Cross's model once the individual got involved in formal education (Participation G) he/she was more likely to do so again in the future. This was shown by the arrow from G to AB.

Figure : Chain-of-Response (COR) Model for Understanding Participation in Adult Learning Activities


(D)
Life transitions
(F)
Information
(A)
Self-evaluation
Importance of goals and expectation that participation will meet goals
(C)
Opportunities and barriers
(E)
(G)
Participation
Attitudes about education
(B)

Cross, K. P. (1981). *Adults As Learners*. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Inc. p.124.

Findings

The findings were based upon an analysis of the data obtained from the 119 completed instruments and the 20 interviews.

Demographic Data

Of the reentry women, 74% were full time students and 61% were working for pay. Of the traditional age women 96% were full time students and 71% were also working. The reentry women who worked for pay tended to work more hours per week than did their traditional age classmates.

A total of 20 of the 46 reentry women had been out of formal education from one to five years. The remaining 26 had been out of the classroom for more than five years. All 73 of the traditional age students had been in formal educaion consistently since high school. The reentry students had a greater variation in the kinds and amounts of formal education before beginning at the university than the traditional age students.

Of the 46 reentry women, 59% were married at the time of the study; whereas, 90% of the 73 traditional age women nursing majors in the study were never married. Of the 46 reentry women, 27 had children living with them. Only one traditional age woman had a child at home.

Question 1. Do reentry women nursing majors differ from traditional age women nursing majors in terms of motivational factors? The reentry women were less motivated by social contact (to make new friends) and more motivated by social stimulation (relief from boredom) than their traditional age classmates.

Question 2. Do reentry women nursing majors differ from traditional age women nursing majors in terms of vocational personalities? There was a significant difference between the reentry women and the traditional age women on the *Vocational Preference Inventory* (Holland, 1985). Differences were found on the Self-Control Scale (reentry women higher in self-control) and on the Acquiescence Scale (traditional age women higher in acquiescence). No difference was found between the two groups on the first six scales. Both groups scored highest on the Social Scale.

Question 3. Do reentry women nursing majors differ from traditional age women nursing majors in terms of barriers to enrollment into a baccalaureate nursing program? There was a significant difference between the reentry women and the traditional age women on 15 of the 35 barriers to enrollment. The cost of college was a barrier of greater importance to the reentry women than to the traditional age women. The belief that there would not be enough time to attend college, study, be with family and/or friends, and deal with other responsibilities was a barrier to the reentry women. Arranging for child care and not having a place to study were also barriers of greater importance to the reentry women than to the traditional age students. Attitudes toward education by family of origin and parents, friends, husband, and/or employer were important barriers to the reentry women.

Dispositional barriers including a fear of failure, lack of self-confidence, and fear of not being smart enough to succeed in college were barriers to the reentry women. The institutional barrier of the religious emphasis of the university was a barrier of greater significance to them than to the traditional age students.

Traditional age students identified two barriers that were of significantly greater importance to them than to their reentry classmates. Leaving home and friends to go to college was a significant barrier to the traditional age students as was the fact that they were tired of being in school.

Question 4. Do reentry women nursing majors differ from traditional age women nursing majors in terms of supports that enabled them to enroll in a baccalaureate nursing program? On 15 of the 20 enabling factors the two groups differed significantly.

The reentry women were enabled to enroll in college by emotional support and encouragement from their husbands and the encouragement from college personnel. The traditional college age students were enabled by the support and encouragement from friends, peers, parents, and/or boss. Making adequate child care arrangements and having the child old enough enabled the reentry women to enroll in college. The reentry women also found that the responsibilities at home changed and they figured out how they could do everything and be in college too. Having more free time and a change in priorities also enabled the reentry women to enroll. The reentry women placed greater importance on finding that classes were offered when they could attend.

The reentry women were enabled to enroll in college by making up their mind to begin, deciding that nursing was what they really wanted for a career, and deciding that they could get a degree in nursing if they really tried. The reentry women talked to themselves and told themselves that they could succeed at college. Getting motivated to begin was also identified by the reentry women as an enabling factor.

Conceptual Framework The Chain-of-Response Model clearly provided a structure helpful in identification of relevant variables that the reentry women expressed. The potential reentry women with a career goal were motivated to overcome obstacles and enroll in a baccalaureate nursing program. The lack of a career goal became a barrier to potential reentry women.

Implications

Since reentry women nursing majors do differ in some ways from traditional college age women nursing majors in terms of motivational factors; marketing, recruitment strategies, and financial aid can be adapted to meet the needs of both groups of potential learners. Making new friends (social contact) could be emphasized in recruitment of traditional college age women and relief from boredom (social stimulation) could be emphasized in recruitment of reentry women.

There was no difference between the two groups of women nursing majors in terms of vocational personalities. Both groups rated "social" occupations highest. Marketing and recruitment strategies could focus on the interpersonal relationship and social interests of future nurses.

Marketing strategies and program goals could be directed toward assisting the potential reentry women to overcome barriers so that enrollment becomes a reality for them. Counseling services could be utilized to help potential reentry women overcome dispositional barriers.

Since all ten of the interviewed reentry women were working in a health care setting or had worked in that setting, recruitment strategies could be directed toward those women currently working in health care settings as nurses's aides and Qualified Medicine Aides (QMA's).

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Technology: A Stimulus to Policy Development in Adult and Continuing Education

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Major studies and reports point to trends in demography, technology, and the national economy as being directly related to the growth of continuing education. For example, the increasing reliance on a skilled labor force, even in entry-level positions, is brought about by technological trends. Post-secondary institutions are required to adopt policies which better serve adults, especially those in the workforce. This paper identifies and discusses three elements necessary for developing a policy perspective: 1) an expressed view of technology, 2) an expressed educational aim, and 3) a policy model congruent with the view of technology and educational aim. Greatest attention is given to the views of technology: artifact, engineering, socialist, ecological, institutional, and autonomous. These views are examined in relation to aims, which are fundamentally vocational, political, and individual. When views of technology, educational aims, and characteristics of policy models (market, progressive liberal, and social control) are considered, a framework emerges to guide institutional policy development. It may also serve as a framework for collaborating with business, industry, and government in developing a national human resource development policy.

TECHNOLOGY: A Stimulus to Policy Development in Adult and Continuing Education

Introduction. A review of the data on the nature and extent of adult learning in the U.S. documents that it is an expanding enterprise. Twenty-three million Americans participate annually in continuing education, with a projected increase of one million adults annually. These adults most frequently cite employment aspirations - job-seeking and job advancement - as reasons for continuing education. They are flocking to post-secondary institutions in such numbers that the average age of college students in 1980 was over thirty years (NACCE, 1983). Adult learning in the workplace is also extensive. In fact, employer-provided training involves more learners than does the entire U.S. higher education system. Educational participation and expenditures increase substantially when combining continuing education in the workplace and in postsecondary institutions: "Formal learning of all kinds occupies about 77 million people annually and costs as much as $304 billion. In 1988, almost one in every three Americans was a student or a trainee" (Carnevale, 1989, p. 27).

Why is there such an increase of funds and manpower by the public and private sectors for continuing education? Trends in demography, technology, and the national economy are directly related to the support and growth of continuing education. Demographic trends include a disproportionately high unemployment level among Blacks and Hispanics, a phenomenal increase of women in the workforce, and more dislocated workers. These demographic trends are on a collision course with America's need for skilled human resources, brought on by technology. Innovations based on technology reduce the ratio of standard jobs per capita and lower the economic value of many skills (Waks and Roy, 1986), requiring continuous retraining. Contrary to expectations, technology does not produce a great number of new jobs. Only seven percent of new job opportunities between 1980 and 1990 are the result of technology (NACCE, 1983).

These demographic and technological trends interrelate with economic trends such as aging industries, decreasing productivity, and failure to compete in the global marketplace. Wise capital investment, technological innovation, and new information can reverse these economic trends, but they are not enough. Still needed is a national human resource development policy. According to the NACCE Report, "educational institutions, especially at the postsecondary level, should not only be closely involved in the development of these national policies but should be asked to reconsider their own policies to help achieve these national objectives" (1983, p. 4).

The Council's message is clear. Postsecondary institutions must demonstrate a commitment to worker education by adopting policies to better serve adults, and through creative partnerships with employers. Given this mandate, what factors are critical to developing policy which enhances adult education in postsecondary institutions, and contributes to national human resource development policy discussions? This paper poses three questions stimulating analysis and discussion of: views of technology, aims of adult education, and social policy models. These may not be the only factors to consider in policy development, but they are among the most fundamental. In the following paragraphs, each factor is discussed in separate sections with a final summary section.

1. What is our view of technology?

Technology, like adult education and social policy, is usually approached by way of criticism and value judgments than of analysis. However, mere criticism and value judgments limit policy discussions. Technology requires analysis and understanding because it is such a significant new force in transforming society. It also has implications for all aspects of postsecondary education - instruction, curriculum, administration, and research. An initial step towards analysis is to inquire into the meaning of technology. Is there an agreed upon or standard way of thinking about technology? Waks and Roy (1986) classify the ways we think about technology into six perspectives or views: artifact, engineering, socialist, ecological, institutional, and autonomous. These views define technology differently and arrive at different requirements for technological literacy and understanding.

The first or artifact view represents a somewhat superficial, 'first glance' view, approaching technology as a device or gadget. This is a very literal, concrete definition. Technology is what you see - a microwave oven, a satellite dish, or a personal computer. Understanding technology means understanding how these devices work and how to use them. Technological literacy involves learning a new vocabulary (floppy disk, menu, mouse, and so on) and the manipulation of the device toward concrete ends. These devices are seen as part of a history of technological development, involving the application of scientific laws to discover and then manufacture these devices.

The second view, engineering, is related to the artifact view in its association with science and the devices produced by the application of scientific knowledge. However, the engineering perspective defines technology more broadly by including rational methods and quantitative measurement. Human management systems (production work, training, rehabilitation) come within the purview of technology, since these systems help to achieve results more efficiently. Rationality and measurement take a center-stage role, while machines and devices take a back-stage role. "Understanding technology is understanding the rational principles underlying the adjustment of means to ends" (Waks & Roy, p. 30).

The artifact and engineering views are distinguished from the remaining views of technology in that they are non-contextual and value-neutral. They define and understand technology apart from its broad social context. For example, the engineering view does not consider the "goodness" of the end achieved by employing the machine or rational system. Improving the yield of measurable ends (a product or a service) per unit of input (whether it be money, time, labor, or machine power) is achieving efficiency, which is an end in itself.

The social perspective is immediately apparent in the third or socialist view. This view considers technology a mode of production which functions to increase the capital and the power of ruling groups in society. In effect, it mirrors the conflict theoretical approach in sociology. Technology is not equated with scientific knowledge or with rationality. Instead, it "is conceived as inherently political, legal, and social, and hence inherently human" (Waks & Roy, p. 33). Understanding technology requires that one acquire the historical, political, and social knowledge which supports this conception. The devices defined as technology in the artifact view are relevant to this perspective insofar as they function to maintain unequal social relationships and to promote high consumption lifestyles. For example, it is no longer sufficient to have one television per household; Americans now "need" two or three televisions per household. Greater social control and conformity is enhanced with greater consumption made possible through technology.

In the ecological perspective, technology is defined as technical means evaluated in terms of their impact on human and physical environments, which are a unity, not two distinct, unrelated spheres of life. Popu-lation dynamics, available resources, and side effects of technology are criteria for evaluating technical means. Understanding technology requires understanding how environmental conservation and global interdependence are affected by technology. Like the socialist view, historical knowledge is emphasized, but with a different focus. The ecologist points to the fact that land, labor and capital are no longer significant factors in human production. This necessitates a shift from a mass to an information economy, promoted through the use of technologies.

The institutional view (Illich, 1976) of technology is similar to the socialist view in its focus on unequal social relationships. However, the inequality is due to the domination of social life by professional elites. Technology is defined as professional knowledge and techniques which facilitate domination and control. Sometimes professional techniques involve the use of devices, as in the case of medicine. Understanding technology requires understanding the inversion of ends and means as professionals and their techniques proliferate. As the range of problems within the purview of professionals increase, the general population becomes less able and more "in need."

The sixth and final view of technology offers a unique perspective. The autonomous view (Ellul, 1964) defines technology as a force out of control, not even subject to direction by people or government. Understanding it requires examining the relationship between the dominance of techniques and their isolation from human goals and values. Technology has certain characteristics which promote this condition. It is self-augmenting, expanding geometrically into more spheres of life as people adopt technical rationality and problem-solving. Unanticipated side effects, such as a nuclear reactor accident, are met with faith that technical rationality will produce still another form of technology to repair and correct the catastrophe.

These multiple views of technology are useful in developing policy which enhances adult education. However, on what basis will one view be adopted over others? Do we select the view that is representative of those held by the adult population? Policy concerns are practical and value-based. Therefore, we need to inquire toward educational ends policy is being developed. Some views of technology (autonomous, engineering, institutional) advance the proposition that technology is an end in itself, not a means toward educational ends.

2. What is the aim of adult education?

Three broad educational aims in a democratic society are vocational, political, and personal (Waks & Roy, 1986). The vocational aim focuses on the preparation of the individual for a work role, enabling the person to be self-supporting, while contributing to society through work productivity. As work and the organization of work changes through technology, the vocational aim is, and will remain important. This should not mean that we relinquish other aims.

The political aim of education concerns preparing individuals for citizenship, that is, active participation in government and community affairs. As noted by Waks and Roy, "The problem of technological knowledge in the modern state has generated major new, antiparticipatory trends in democratic theory. In these the scientific and technological ignorance of the masses of people is taken as a given" (p. 26). This problem is the subject of intense discussion and attempts at renewing citizen participation (Arterton, 1987).

The third aim concerns the development of *individuality*. This implies that the person is able to organize activities in life toward freely-selected goals which express both uniqueness and social relatedness. Individuality is a process of becoming, as many humanist psychologists suggest; it is rarely achieved. Technology affects this aim as well, since greater rationalization and routinization are required for fulfilling public and private roles.

A discussion of aims derived from adult education literature provides the following list: remedial, coping, personal development, societal development, and counter-cultural development (Roberts, 1982). The first few aims comprise a continuum of aims based on conditions ranging from inadequate personal functioning (remedial) to institutional change (societal development). Counter-cultural development is a special category of aims. However, all aims are dependent upon the dominant social philosophy as expressed in national and institutional policies, which dictate the focus of educational programs. A remedial aims focuses on personal inadequacy due to some deficit in prior schooling. For example, an individual enrolls in a GED program to get a high school diploma, which creates job opportunities. An employee signs up for he company's supervisory training program, which leads to job advancement.

The focus of educational programs related to coping pertains to personal problems, role changes, and new developments in knowledge, professions, and organizations. An individual attempting to deal with the death of a spouse joins a support group which examines grief and widowhood. A nurse finds it necessary to study cardiac care nursing after beginning a new job. The distinctions between these aims are not always absolute. For example, dealing with death and widowhood may be relevant to the third aim, personal development, while learning new nursing procedures may be considered as meeting a remedial aim.

Societal development is a distinct educational aim which focuses on institutional change, including roles and relationships within organizations at the local, state, and national levels. Societal development is expressed by encouraging or mandating courses in multi-cultural education or in society and technology. The purpose is broader than a remedial one, which is concerned with individual knowledge deficit. The purpose is individual and institutional change. Counter-cultural development is altogether different. The focus of these programs is culture-building and social reorganization based on new cultural identities. In contrast to the other aims, counter-cultural development is most likely achieved through community-based, grassroots programs. Some organizations within the feminist and ecology movements have counter-cultural development aims.

3. *What model of social policy do we subscribe to*?

Once we have addressed the question of educational aims, we can inquire about the social policy model guiding policy development concerned with adult education. Griffin (1987) discusses three models which have implications on educational provision:

The Market Model: Only individual learning needs are of real significance, and these can be met through the private market.
The Progressive-Liberal-Welfare Model: Educational provision must be regulated and planned to assure all adults equal access.
The Social Control Model: Educational provision must be planned and supported to assure redistribution and social cohesion.

The Market and Progressive-Liberal-Welfare Models are endorsed in democratic societies. In the U.S., the Progressive Model rose to prominence in the first half of the twentieth century when Social Security and labor legislation was enacted. In the last decade, the Market Model has again rose to prominence, influenced by national political leadership in the White House and Congress.

Keeping these factors in mind, we can begin to see the relationship of the different views of technology to the various aims of adult education, and the basic social policy models. It is suggested that the artifact view of technology parallels and reinforces the remedial aim of education, which can be provided through implementing a Market or a Progressive Policy Model. However, if we view technology from the ecological perspective, the remedial aim is too restrictive, and the Market Model does not regulate educational provision enough. Proponents would point to the recent oil spill in Alaska and the Russian submarine accident as examples of insufficient regulation having disastrous consequences. In any case, these factors are critical to developing policy which enhances adult education in postsecondary institutions, and which contributes to national human resource development policy discussions.

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RESEARCH IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION: VIEWS FROM THE FIELD

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ABSTRACT

A twenty item mail survey instrument was developed to assess the perceptions of adult educators regarding a) the current state of research in adult and continuing education, and b) the future of research in adult and continuing education. The survey was mailed to all regular registrants who attended the 1987 Research to Practice Conference in Adult and Continuing Education. A total of 56 participants responded (57% response rate).

The respondents had professional experience that varied from two years to thirty years (mean = 14.0 years). The largest group of respondents, 27 (48.2%), spent their professional time administering programs, with 15 (26.8%) teaching adults, 11 (19.6%) planning programs, and 3 (5.4%) spent their time entirely in research. The average number of research studies conducted by the respondents was 5.1 with those who devoted their time to research doing significantly more studies (mean = 17.7) than any of the other groups (means for other groups = 5.9, 3.9, and 3.4).

The findings of the study generally indicate a fairly homogeneous response pattern that does not seem to be dependent upon the demographic variables used in the study. Opinions regarding the future potential for research in adult and continuing education are positive with an increased emphasis on qualitative studies. The findings of adult education research are generally seen as not highly applicable and neither the quality of the research methods used nor the training of the researchers is viewed as high. It is generally felt that the more research that is conducted by a researcher the better training the researcher had and the greater the quality of the research methods used.

Data drawn from the presentation/discussion of this study at the 1989 Research to Practice Conference in Adult Education will be used to expand these findings. An updated version of this study with the expanded findings will be available from the researchers.

RESEARCH IN ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION: VIEWS FROM THE FIELD

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Background Attempts to stimulate greater concern for increased research in the field of adult and continuing education have gained momentum during the past few years. Special interest groups focused on adult education research have emerged in professional organizations such as the American Educational Research Association and the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education. The Adult Education Research Conference continues to grow in size and significance and the Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult and Continuing Education has begun to be seen as an established avenue for practitioners and researchers to come together to examine current concerns and to plan next initiatives. This study attempts to respond to this growing concern for adult education research through the presentation of survey research findings coupled with observations on the topic of adult and continuing education research - current practice and future potential.

The Study A twenty item mail survey instrument was developed to assess the perceptions of adult educators regarding a) the current state of research in adult and continuing education, and b) the future of research in adult and continuing education. Of the twenty items on the instrument, four of the items asked for demographic information that were used to group data for analysis, fourteen of the items used a five point Likert-type scale to assess opinions and two of the items were open-ended. The survey was mailed to all regular registrants who attended the 1987 Research to Practice Conference in Adult and Continuing Education. This group consisted of 99 registrants. Of this group, one questionnaire was returned as "undeliverable" and 56 questionnaires were completed and returned to the researchers. No follow-up attempt to encourage additional responses was made. This procedure yielded a response rate of 57%.

Findings The respondents had professional experience that varied from two years to thirty years (mean = 14.0 years). Thirty seven respondents (66.1%) were employed in higher education, 11 (19.6%) were employed by public schools (K-12), and an additional 7 (12.5%) were employed by state departments of education. The largest group of respondents, 27 (48.2%), spent their professional time administering programs, with 15 (26.8%) teaching adults, 11 (19.6%) planning programs, and 3 (5.4%) spent their time entirely in research.

The average number of research studies conducted by the respondents was 5.1 with those who devoted their time to research doing significantly more studies (mean # of studies = 17.7) than any of the other groups (mean # of studies for other groups = 5.9, 3.9, and 3.4).

Table 1 shows the mean scores on the 14 opinion items included in the survey instrument.

Table 1

Mean Ratings for Opinion Items

Opinion Item	Mean*
Regarding...	
...PERSONAL IMPORTANCE OF QUALITATIVE RSRCH	3.98
...FUTURE EMPHASIS ON QUALITATIVE RESEARCH	3.81
...PERSONAL IMPORTANCE OF QUANTITATIVE RSRCH	3.63
...HOW MUCH RSRCH WILL BE CONDUCTED IN FUTURE	3.60
...FUTURE EMPHASIS ON QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH	3.38
...HOW SUPPORTIVE YOUR ORGANIZATION IS	3.19
...HOW SUPPORTIVE COLLEAGUES ARE OF RESEARCH	3.11
...AMOUNT OF RESEARCH PREPARATION YOU HAD	3.09
...APPLICABILITY OF FINDINGS TO THRY BLDG	2.96
...APPLICABILITY OF FINDINGS TO PRACTICE	2.93
...QUALITY OF METHODS USED	2.58
...HOW MUCH RESEARCH IS CONDUCTED	2.53
...APPLICABILITY OF FINDINGS TO POLICY	2.32
...RESEARCH TRAINING OF RESEARCHERS	2.25

* The mean is calculated on a score of 1 to 5 with 1 indicating a low opinion on the item and 5 indicating a high opinion on the item (e.g. little/considerable, poor/excellent, not important/very important, etc.)

The opinion items receiving the highest mean ratings (on a scale of 1 to 5) were related to the importance/value of the findings of qualitative research (3.98), the future emphasis on qualitative research (3.81), the importance/value of the findings of quantitative research (3.63), and the amount of research that will probably be conducted in the future (3.60). The items receiving the lowest mean ratings were the amount of training currently provided to researchers (2.25), the applicability of findings to policy (2.32), the amount of research that is currently being conducted (2.53), and the quality of the current research methodologies that are used (2.58).

No significant differences were found on the opinion items when the data were grouped based on the type of organization for which the respondent worked. Additionally, no significant differences were found on the opinion items when the data were grouped based on years as a professional. Table 2 shows the three cases where grouped data yielded significant differences in responses to opinion items.

Table 2

Grouped Data That Yielded Differences* in Opinions

Opinion Item	Groups	Mean
APPLICABILITY OF FINDINGS TO PRACTICE	a) Teachers of adults	3.267
	b) Program administrators	3.077
	c) Researchers	2.333
	d) Program Planners	2.273
HOW MUCH RSRCH WILL BE CONDUCTED IN FUTURE	a) Program planners	4.000
	b) Program administrators	3.704
	c) Teachers of adults	3.467
	d) Researchers	2.000
AMOUNT OF RESEARCH PREPARATION YOU HAD	a) No studies conducted	2.07
	b) More than 10 studies conducted	3.50

* All differences significant at greater than .05

When data were grouped based on how the respondents spent their professional time, two opinion items were found to discriminate between groups - applicability of findings to practice (with those who plan programs rating this item significantly lower), and the amount of research that will probably be conducted in the future (with those who do research rating this item significantly lower). When data were grouped according to how many research studies the respondent had conducted, one opinion item was found to discriminate between groups - amount of research preparation that the respondent had (with those who conducted more than 10 research studies rating this item significantly higher).

Correlations between opinion items were generally low with only seven correlations greater than .5. These correlations are shown in Table 3.

Table 3 indicates that it is the opinion of adult educators that the research training of adult education researchers is strongly related to the quality of the research methods that are used for research and how much research is actually conducted. In addition, it is felt that the support one gets from his/her organization is related to the support one gets from his/her colleagues; the quality of the research methods used is directly related to how much research is conducted; that those who feel qualitative research is important (or unimportant) feel similarly about quantitative research; that those who feel that research findings are applicable (or not applicable) to practice feel similarly about applicability to policy; and that those who feel there will be considerably more (or considerably less) research conducted in the future feel there will be a greater (or lesser) emphasis on quantitative research.

Table 3

Highest Correlations on Opinion Items

Opinion Items	Correlation Coefficient
Regarding...	
...RESEARCH TRAINING OF RESEARCHERS/ ...QUALITY OF METHODS USED	.610
...RESEARCH TRAINING OF RESEARCHERS/ ...HOW MUCH RESEARCH IS CONDUCTED	.607
...HOW SUPPORTIVE COLLEAGUES ARE OF RESEARCH/ ...HOW SUPPORTIVE YOUR ORGANIZATION IS	.605
...HOW MUCH RESEARCH IS CONDUCTED/ ...QUALITY OF METHODS USED	.594
...PERSONAL IMPORTANCE OF QUALITATIVE RSRCH ...PERSONAL IMPORTANCE OF QUANTITATIVE RSRCH	.587
...APPLICABILITY OF FINDINGS TO PRACTICE ...APPLICABILITY OF FINDINGS TO POLICY	.537
...HOW MUCH RSRCH WILL BE CONDUCTED IN FUTURE ...FUTURE EMPHASIS ON QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH	.509

Specific areas of focus for future research include workplace education (identified by 24% of the respondents), adult learning theory (21.6%), literacy (19.6%) and retention/ motivation (12.7%).

Discussion of Findings The findings of the study generally indicate a fairly homogeneous response pattern that does not seem to be dependent upon the demographic variables used in the study. Opinions regarding the future potential for research in adult and continuing education are positive with an increased emphasis on qualitative studies. The findings of adult education research are generally seen as not highly applicable and neither the quality of the research methods used nor the training of the researchers is viewed as high. It is generally felt that the more research that is conducted by a researcher the better training the researcher had and the greater the quality of the research methods used.

Session participants at the 1989 Research to Practice Conference in Adult Education (where this study will be presented) will be asked to react to these findings/conclusions from their own perspective and to share specific ideas and suggestions regarding ways in which they feel adult educators can focus their research practices. In addition, the participants will be asked to complete the 20 item survey instrument to enlarge the data base that has been presented. As such, these data/findings should be considered tentative. Following the 1989 Conference, these data will be appended with the new data and key ideas and concepts brought out in the discussion will be added. A new paper with the additional data and discussion will be prepared following the 1989 Conference and will be available from the researchers.

A MODEL FOR UTILIZING APPLIED BUSINESS RESEARCH IN A UNIVERSITY CONTINUING EDUCATION/EXTENSION PROGRAM

by

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Abstract

This paper describes a model outreach program which has utilized the combined resources of a university's applied business research unit, a continuing education and extension organization within a School of Business Administration, statewide cooperative extension content area specialists and local urban-based extension field staff members. The major thrust of this project was to employ the efforts of the research organization and their access to various business-related data bases to assist extension field staff in addressing the economic development needs of local business, municipal and county governmental organizations.

By intention this project sought to link business research with the practical concerns of business and industry, community development and economic development specialists in a major urban area in the Midwest. Details concerning the nature of the program, its funding, staffing, operations and implementation are provided.

A MODEL FOR UTILIZING APPLIED BUSINESS RESEARCH IN A UNIVERSITY CONTINUING EDUCATION/EXTENSION PROGRAM

BACKGROUND

Over the years, the traditional focus of University-based extension programs has been one oriented to developing training programs. In many instances, land grant institutions through the cooperative extension service, have dealt with basic and applied research issues in the area of agricultural profitability and productivity. Using this latter model, this paper describes how, through the use of applied business research efforts, a program-oriented University extension organization expanded its focus and combined the resources of researchers and practitioners to solve economic development problems of mutual concern.

The effort described in this paper utilized the combined resources of a university's applied business research unit, a continuing education and extension organization within a university-based School of Business Administration, statewide cooperative extension content area specialists and local urban-based field staff members. The major thrust of this project was to employ the efforts of the research organization and their access to various business-related data bases to assist extension field staff in addressing the economic development needs of local business, municipal and county governmental organizations.

By intention it sought to link business research with the practical concerns of business and industry, community development and economic development specialists in a major urban area in the Midwest. It is believed that this is the first such effort of its type to combine the resources and address the problems described above.

SITUATION STATEMENT

As observed by Robert Waterman, coauthor of In Search of Excellence and The Renewal Factor, the most successful organizations are those that use information effectively. The main purpose of this project was to make it easier for Missouri organizations, particularly small businesses, to benefit from the University's sophisticated information resources. These resources included: (1) census databases locally maintained by the Urban Information Center at University of Missouri-St. Louis; (2) the capacity to generate computer maps and data tables customized for particular studies; and (3) analytical models developed in prior projects conducted by the UM-St. Louis Center for Business and Industrial Studies (CBIS).

Many diverse organizations, especially large companies, take advantage of the university's information resources for a variety of purposes. However, much potential for extending these resources is unmet. Missouri organizations that could benefit from these resources include small-business entrepreneurs, local government agencies, and nonprofit organizations. Because it is not feasible for many of them to have research specialists on their staffs, such organizations usually do not know what kind of information is available from the university, how it could help them, and how to acquire it.

SITUATION STATEMENT (Continued)

University Extension offices could help make this kind of business information accessible and usable to both private and public organizations. These Extension offices already have invested in the computer equipment that can tap into UM business databases, apply analytical models, and generate high-quality maps and charts. To take full advantage of the University's business information resources, Extension offices need (1) instruction in ways that various clients can use this wealth of information; (2) software for assembling the information into useful forms; and (3) experience in applying the tools to prototypical cases. In this project, a set of tools, in the form of case workbooks, that business and industry specialists at Extension offices can employ to provide sophisticated business information to various organizations was developed. These tools were designed to be particularly useful in counseling small businesses. A series of training seminars designed to familiarize Extension specialists with the use of these tools was also needed. In addition, several of the specialists were involved in the application of the tools to typical case studies in their territories.

Information is of no benefit unless it is "packaged" so that people can easily use it. Hence, a major effort of this project was to experiment with different ways of making the case books and instructional materials "user friendly." Throughout the project advice was sought from Extension specialists who were the intended users of these tools, and incorporate their suggestions in the design of the workbooks and the training program.

As the State Data Center, the university has a mission to make information resources accessible to Missouri organizations. The project designed here helped UM fulfill this mission. In so doing, the project enabled UM Extension offices to capitalize on their investments in personnel and computer technology. Moreover, by helping small businesses understand their markets and identify profitable opportunities, the project contributed to economic development for individual communities and for the state as a whole.

PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

The project was conducted in two major phases. The main objective of the first phase was to develop "business information tools" that industrial development specialists at Extension offices could use in serving their clients. The main objective of the second phase was to develop and conduct training seminars to familiarize extension specialists in the use of these tools, and also to give experience in applying the tools in the field.

Historically, the extension programs of the School of Business Administration have concentrated on the delivery of training programs for middle-level managers. Analytical studies and applied research have been conducted primarily through the Center for Business and Industrial Studies. Through this project, a partnership was forged that enhanced the ability of the university to address needs for training and analysis in the Missouri business community.

PROJECT PLAN

The project was organized in seven steps in Year 1.

Step 1 - Development of a Plan for Informational Services

In the first phase of the project, a plan for establishment of informational and analytical services through University Extension was developed. The plan encompassed:

- anticipated clientele
- nature of inquiries anticipated
- sources of secondary data
- computing resources (databases, hardware, software) required
- personnel requirements.

To produce this plan, a broad study of informational needs noted above was conducted. The study included visits with extension personnel from the mideast region, selected governmental officials, and potential clients.

Step 2 - Selection of Cases for Demonstration Studies

In cooperation with extension specialists, a set of cases to represent the various types of clients and information services that would be served in the plan developed in Step 1 was developed.

Step 3 - Development of Databases and Analytical Tools (Software)

The cases selected in Step 2 was typical of those that University Extension intended to undertake in future years. To provide such services more efficiently in the future, information from public data files compiled into a database for easy use was extracted. Software modules for generating geographic maps by computer and for preparing graphs and reports was also created.

Step 4 - Demonstration Studies

In this step information services and analyses for the representative demonstration cases and clients selected in Step 2 were provided. In performing these demonstration studies, sources of data instructions for using the analytical tools developed in Step 3 and reports for the clients were also provided.

Step 5 - Preparation of Case Books

Based on what was learned from all of the prior steps, especially the demonstration studies, a set of case workbooks was prepared. The purpose of these workbooks was to help extension specialist in structuring similar studies in the future. They also guided the designated research specialist as he or she conducted those future studies.

PROJECT PLAN (Continued)

Step 6 - Training Seminars for Extension Personnel

In a seminar for extension specialists, the plan for informational services after the report is completed was presented. At the end of Year 1, further seminars to present the results of the demonstration studies and to instruct them in using the system to provide informational services to the public were conducted.

AUDIENCES

The immediate audience for this project consisted of business extension specialists and clients. Information resources were packaged to help these specialists better serve their communities. Industrial development specialists, Missouri businesses, community agencies, and enterprises considering investment in Missouri were the ultimate "audience" served by this project. In particular, small businesses and community agencies also benefited directly from analytical capabilities developed by the UM-St. Louis Center for Business and Industrial Studies in past studies that were performed for large companies.

Adult Education as a Discipline in the University

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Inherent differences between Adult Education and the university makes the acceptance of Adult Education as a discipline a highly controversial issue. This includes questions about Adult Education and its subject matter, research, graduate study, and conflicts with secondary education. Central to each of these questions, however, is the antithesis between the didactic professorial approach (i.e., this is what will be taught) and the ostensive adult learner's approach (i.e., this is what I choose to learn). In light of this antithesis, a philosophical analysis of the four questions was therefore undertaken. It initially entailed showing the need for a rationale to aid in justifying the role of Adult Education as a university discipline. This was followed by comparing the credibility of research in Adult Education with that afforded "scientific" research. A third step examined the conduct of Adult Education as a field of university graduate study. Further analysis then clarified the conflict between courses in curriculum/methods in Adult Education and those in secondary education. The latter was done in light of the criticisms traditionally directed against curriculum/methods courses, regardless of their field of application. Finally, two epistemological conceptualizing models about the valuing of knowledge were proposed. One model focused on valuing knowledge intrinsically as opposed to valuing it instrumentally. The other was a theory-logic-practice model which distinguished between the college of arts and sciences, school of education, and professional schools of a university. It appears likely that the application of these models to the theoretical foundations of Adult Education would help resolve an otherwise unavoidable conflict between the traditional university professorial approach and the contemporary adult learner's approach.

Adult Education as a Discipline in the University

Henry R. Weinstock
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Due to inherent differences between adult education and the university, any perspective about Adult Education being a discipline (i.e., a field of study) in a university is one bound to be of a controversial nature. This is exacerbated by numerous questions that often are raised about just what constitutes a discipline anyway. Problems of definition, therefore, are not limited to the field of Adult Education. Nevertheless, the use of the term "discipline" often is found to be part of traditional university jargon when discussions arise about the legitimacy of courses, programs, degrees, and departmental organization.

Adult Education, although relatively new in the university, is a field being established on campuses throughout not only America but also on an international scale. Hence, there is a need to clarify the nature of just what differentiates those fields which are accepted as university disciplines from those which are not. It thus may behoove the advocates of Adult Education to look into the question of whether it actually is a discipline. In essence, what is at issue from such a state of affairs has to do with some diverse controversies surrounding Adult Education. These include questions about Adult Education and (1) the nature of the subject matter comprising it, (2) the conduct and acceptability of its research, (3) the structure of its basic and advanced graduate work, and (4) the inherent conflict between curriculum/methods courses in Adult Education and those in secondary education.

It is likely, however, that at least one issue is central to each of these questions. This deals with the contradictions arising from the antithesis between the traditional didactic professorial approach (i.e., this is what will be taught) and the contemporary ostensive adult learner's approach (i.e., this is what I choose to learn). Any potential clarification which may result from the application of philosophical analysis to the issue therefore justifies its undertaking.

Adult Education as "Subject Matter"

An essential question may be posed at to the nature of the subject matter which ostensibly comprises Adult Education, since any discussion of what constitutes a discipline would likely entail a prior analysis of the nature of the subject matter comprising it. Yet "subject matter" itself involves the raising of further questions. For instance, at times it is simply how old a subject is, i.e., how long it has been around, that may determine the answer. A related factor deals with the assumption that when an area in a university has one or more tenured faculty members, then this itself might assure that the area will remain as a permanent campus offering. Still another factor associated with "subject matter" is whether it can actually be taught. Yet each of these three criteria for subject matter, i.e., longevity, tenured faculty, and teachability, also entails contradictions. It seems that many other kinds of things have been around a long time, do involve tenured faculty members, and are capable of being taught. For instance, workshops in playing golf, orienteering, dancing, and use of leisure can each meet these criteria. Yet they normally are not counted as credit toward the completion of a degree program. Instead, these workshops are generally offered as non-credit courses, even though some have existed for many years, often involve tenured faculty recruited from regular subject-matter fields, and are taught in some manner to the workshop participants. It therefore appears that even the prior question of just what constitutes "subject matter" is in itself not clear. This, in turn, makes defining the nature of a "discipline" anything but simple.

Adult Education and Research

A second question impinging on the legitimacy of Adult Education as a discipline logically entails the reliability and subsequent acceptability of pertinent research in and related to it. It is unlikely that research which does not result in either improved theory, logical clarification, nor verifiable facts about a field of study will help to raise that field's academic acceptability. Part of the reason for this is that the concept of research is in itself often equated with its being some form of scientific undertaking. Yet there are probably as many concepts about what constitutes research as there is a diversity of fields. For instance, statistical research can be descriptive, i.e., what the chances are of a distribution of a variable in a population being represented in the distribution of a sample derived from that population. Yet statistical research can also be inferential, i.e., what the chances are of the distribution of a variable in a given sample being representative of its distribution in the population as a whole. But statistical research is probabilistic whereas scientific research generally deals with direct cause-effect predictability. Thus, for instance, research in the social sciences tends to be more suspect than is the research conducted in the physical and biological sciences. Yet this is only one of a multitude of issues dealing with the conduct of "research" in various fields. This state of affairs, therefore, cannot but help to amplify the numerous issues raised about the nature of the research conducted in the field of Adult Education.

Questions about the essential meaning of research also arise when an attempt is made to legitimize the results of such research through its published dissemination. The road to the publication of traditionally acceptable "scientific" research is itself usually long and arduous. Often the actual appearance of such research in the representative journal of a scientific field is preceded by extensive trial and retrial on behalf of the initiators of such research. At times the same research is also simultaneously being undertaken by other investigators. In addition, there generally exists an acceptable consensus about the legitimacy of the standards by which research is to be conducted, i.e., the theory behind and the methodology for reaching conclusions are usually known to all parties. Hence, the acceptability of the results of scientific research are at least somewhat in agreement with the means by which it can be verified. Even then, of course, much emphasis is placed upon the replicability of the outcomes of scientific research by totally independent groups. Such replicability, or, on the other hand, the lack of it, can at times lead to extensive delay, if not complete denial of the success of research outcomes. It thus can be asked just how research in the field of Adult Education would fare if, for instance, it were to be viewed in the cold light of rigorous, scientific methodology. It is more than likely, however, that Adult Education, among many other fields, is still in need of a comprehensive theory underlying its research methodology, whether it be scientific or otherwise. Hence, there may be little legitimacy from a scientific or other perspective attributable to the published research in Adult Education until its own "theoretical house" is first brought into order.

Adult Education As Graduate Study

The concept of Adult Education as a university discipline also has profound implications for the conduct of graduate work in it. University disciplines usually have a tradition of graduate programs leading to the doctorate. Their presence as fields of graduate studies in one or more universities also lends some impetus to their being created as graduate programs in universities where such programs do not yet exist. On the other hand, a university may have certain characteristics in its graduate programs which demand stated levels of acceptability in research, tradition, faculty stature, and funding which an aspiring graduate field also is expected to demonstrate. In addition, one or more graduate fields of study in a university may thus compete with a newly aspiring field. In fact, the nature of a university may traditionally be such that the philosophy inherent in what constitutes acceptable knowledge, i.e., its epistemology, can actually oppose that of a new field. If this be the case, then it is implausible to expect a faculty in a given field to surrender its autonomy, especially where tight budgetary processes may already exist, in order to meet the challenges of a new field. Yet this is precisely what may occur when an effort is made to establish graduate programs in Adult Education where courses in secondary curriculum/methods are already being offered.

Adult Education vis-a-vis Secondary Education

In light of the prospective difficulties besetting Adult Education as a legitimate field of study, i.e., as a discipline, a clarification of its potential conflict with secondary curriculum/methods courses may well be in order. This appears to be of significant importance for Adult Education at both the experiential and the theoretical levels. Although some aspects of the clash between the professorial tradition and the adult learner's raison d'etre are fairly obvious, others are less discernable. One of the more commonly perceived instances is the issue arising out of the conflict between university faculty members teaching courses in secondary curriculum/methods and those proposing to teach such courses in Adult Education. This argument usually takes the form of an hypothetical question about whether different curriculum/methods courses are actually needed for a teacher of Algebra II in high school and for a teacher of Algebra II in an evening community school.

Yet there is also a more theoretical dimension inherent in such an issue. This deals with the lack of a demonstrated justifiction for curriculum/methods courses in general, be they for teaching Algebra II, or anything else, for that matter. Since the bifurcation of curriculum/methods and subject matter is generally viewed as being inappropriate, creating curriculum/methods courses which are entirely unique to Adult Education may therefore fuel an already existing untenable dualism. One part of this dilemma therefore is comprised of the questionable theoretical, logical, and factual distinctions usually made between adult and secondary curriculum/methods courses. The other part of the argument is due to the frequent criticisms directed against any curriculum/methods course which exists independently of its respective subject matter.

Adult Education and Models for Valuing Knowledge

In light of the aforementioned conflicts which arise when considering Adult Education as a university discipline, two epistemological conceptualizing models about the valuing of knowledge are proposed. Both are characteristic models, each being a model "for" theory, rather than a model "of" theory. One of these models focuses on valuing knowledge intrinsically (i.e., for its own sake) as opposed to valuing knowledge instrumentally (i.e., for its usefulness). The other is a theory-logic-practice model which differentiates the role knowledge plays in a university's college of arts and sciences, school of education, and professional schools. Because of the demonstrated usefulness of these models in the analysis of educational issues, it is strongly recommended that they be invoked by the proponents of Adult Education so as to help make its place as a discipline in the university less precipitous. The use of the knowledge model to develop a theoretical framework for intrinsically valuing Adult Education could provide a stability gained from knowledge which is truly independent only when based on a firm foundation. The employment of the theory-logic-practice model might aid in justifying the existence of Adult Education as a legitimate applied field of study. This would likely be a field having some of the attributes of both a university's school of education and its professional schools.

In order to achieve these ends it should be reiterated that research can take many forms, even though empirical research (e.g., research which is scientific) is generally more readily accepted. Yet another form of research is one which is instead theoretical (e.g., philosophical). It may well be, for instance, that theoretical research can be useful in any attempt to link theory to practice in Adult Education, since such a link would likely be clarified through subjecting it to close philosophical scrutiny. Hence, the use of the techniques of analytic philosophy, in conjunction with certain requisite conceptualizing models, could play a significant role for Adult Education in three ways. These would be (1) describing the nature of the inherent meta-issues in terms of their delineated underlying criteria, (2) evaluating and criticizing those criteria, and (3) making potential recommendations about the future conduct of Adult Education, in general, and its place in the university, in particular. This would be especially fruitful when attempting to clarify the fundamental contradiction inherent in the controversy between the traditional didactic professorial approach and the contemporary ostensive adult learner's approach.

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LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES FOR VOLUNTEERS: THE RELATIONSHIP OF LEARNING STYLES TO PARTICIPATION

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Participation in continuing education is a concern for educators of adults, and volunteer coordinators are concerned that volunteers participate in offered learning courses designed to enhance their knowledge and skills. This study posed that learning styles contribute to variations in participation in learning opportunities for volunteers. The study examined (a) factors involved in decisions regarding participation in continuing education courses for Girl Scout volunteers; (b) the learning styles of Girl Scout volunteers; and (c) the influence of those learning styles on their participation decisions.

The research design used both qualitative and quantitative methods. A model specified likely participation factors, and a survey instrument assessed the learning styles. The sample consisted of 346 questionnaires mailed with 258 returned and 30 interviews conducted.

Major findings from the interviews are that (a) choice based on the leader and recommendations of others are important factors for completers and nonparticipants; (b) nonparticipants' decisions are affected most by time and timing concerns. For completers and noncompleters, other factors outweigh problems with scheduling and motivate volunteers too participate despite obstacles. (c) The predominant learning styles of volunteers are collaborative, participative, and dependent; (d) regardless of a particular orientation or learning style, volunteers indicate strong preferences for motility of learning, i.e., involvement and interaction within the learning setting; (e) the focus of leadership in learning settings is on the leader. Only independent learners also focussed on the learners' responsibilities and abilities. (f) Completers indicated that learning styles exert a strong influence on their participation decisions while noncompleters and nonparticipants express some mixed reactions. Non participants are more uncertain of the influence than the other two groups.

LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES FOR VOLUNTEERS: THE RELATIONSHIP OF LEARNING STYLES TO PARTICIPATION

Volunteerism is an active part of our society. In 1985, nearly half of all Americans 14 years or older volunteered (Independent Sector, 1986). Volunteers are found in all age groups, come from all income ranges and educational levels, and serve in a variety of activities. Volunteers are an important part of our society. With this importance comes responsibility. The agencies which work with volunteers have responsibilities to volunteers and to the clientele of volunteer services. Volunteers must perform the services competently. The tasks for which one volunteers vary, and with that the skill levels vary. For some tasks, agencies require volunteers to participate in training or learning courses. Other times such participation may be voluntary or unnecessary.

Education for volunteers can help provide the growth and development of the volunteers (Fiset, Freeman, Ilsley, & Snow, 1987). Volunteer coordinators believe education for volunteers is vital and necessary. Those coordinators can anticipate that some of the people will make every effort to be in attendance while other people will not attend at all. Others may attend the course, but soon after beginning the sessions drop-out. Some volunteers will complete the program and give highly satisfied evaluations to the leader.

What contributes to this variation in attendance? Brundage and MacKeracher (1980) state that adults self-select learning situations based on their learning preferences. Therefore volunteers may not participate in a course because they perceive a mismatch between their preferred learning style and the teaching style used by the leader. This study examined the influence that learning styles have on the decision to participate in continuing education for volunteers.

Three decision points regarding participation were studied: (a) nonparticipation in the learning opportunity (nonparticipants); (b) partial completion of the learning opportunity (noncompleters); and (c) completion of the learning opportunity (completers). A survey containing the Grasha-Riechmann Learning Style Survey (GRLSS) assessed volunteers' learning styles and determined the participation level. Thirty interviews then determined the individuals' cognition of their learning styles; the decision to participate in the learning courses; the relationship of their learning style to the decision to participate; and other factors mentioned which may have influenced participation.

Summary of Findings

Themes emerged from the interview data. The major participation themes are that choice based on the leader and recommendations of others are important factors for completers and nonparticipants. Nonparticipants' decisions also are affected most by time and timing concerns. For completers and noncompleters, other factors outweigh problems with scheduling and motivate volunteers to participate despite obstacles.

Based on the results of the GRLSS survey, the predominant learning styles of volunteers are collaborative, participative, and dependent. The learning themes from the interviews, regardless of a particular orientation or learning style, are that volunteers indicate strong preferences for motility of learning, i.e., involvement and interaction within the learning setting. The interviewees focussed the leadership in learning settings on the leader. Only independent learners also focussed on the learners' responsibilities and abilities.

The relations of learning styles to participation findings are that completers indicated that learning styles exert a strong influence on their participation decisions while noncompleters and nonparticipants express some mixed reactions. Nonparticipants are more uncertain of the influence than the other two groups.

Implications for Practice

The first implication is the seriousness and impact of the task of educator of adults. So much is riding on learning experiences that educators cannot hastily plan, or sloppily conduct, learning situations. Previous learning experiences contributed to both learning styles and participation decision themes. A previous negative experience often led noncompleters and nonparticipants to future nonparticipation. Positive experiences reinforced completers enthusiasm and participation. Those prior experiences affected other elements within the themes so that one agrees with the assertions that adults approach learning with specific expectations and attitudes towards the learning process (Butler, 1984; Darkenwald & Hayes, 1986).

A second implication is the challenge educators face in the variety and diversity of learners. One can anticipate that the times when only one type of learner is present in a learning setting are rare. Therefore a mix of methodologies might be advisable to reach the diversity of learners. Another facet to the presence of diversity is that one must go beyond the concept that learning is information delivery. In a cognitive-oriented learning setting, it is too easy to become locked into delivering information and to forget that skills and personal growth are part of the learning process too. In this study, completers valued personal growth issues in courses. If an aim of educational planners is to have learners continue in their programs, then personal growth and skills, as well as information, should be included in courses.

Another part of the planners' responsibilities is that of promoting the courses. Nonparticipants commented on the lack of information about course opportunities. This implies that one reason for their nonparticipation is simply weak information sources. Besides using standard techniques such as brochures and catalogues, a possible source that is overlooked is other learners. Recommendations of others played a part in all three participation categories, especially for completers and nonparticipants. The enthusiasm, or the discouragement, that people convey about courses often impacts heavily on others' decisions to participate.

Using learners as a source of promotion includes, to some extent, the interpersonal dimension of learning. I expected social interaction to be strong, at least for collaborative and participative learners. Instead the findings show socialization concerns interwoven within more cognitive concerns. The implication is that learning activities have multi-dimensional purposes. Educators should include an activity not solely because a lesson plan calls for it or because they think learners should socialize, but because it contributes to several purposes, e.g., sharing ideas and experiences, applying concepts presented in a lecture, or actively involving learners. Learning activities which serve several purposes will accomplish and meet more learners' needs and preferences.

The overarching theme of these implications, and a major finding of this study, is that of leadership. Educators are leaders, and responsibility for appropriate interactions with learners, regardless of their learning style or participation classification, rests heavily on them. An andragogical presupposition that is present in much of adult education literature is that adult learners are self-directed. Pratt (1988) and Shore (1985) believe that adults vary in their desire, capability, and readiness to control instructional methods. This study's findings of leadership notes the variability in learners' readiness and desire for self-directedness. The leadership theme challenges the blanket assertion of self-directedness and adds another dimension to our understanding of adult learners.

Summary

Learning styles do impact on participation decisions. The answer to how volunteers use those learning preferences depends on the individuals' perceptions and strength of their learning styles. This study also suggests several ideas for effective teaching-learning processes. Leaders can enrich their understanding of the leader-learner interactions by more fully grasping the import placed on leadership within the learning setting. Educational planners can enrich their understanding of actors of participation and use those which apply to their settings. Learners can enrich their consciousness of their learning styles and the influence of such preferences on their decision processes. Overall, the decisions made in adult education, whether or not to participate, what type of learning formats are appropriate, and others, are enriched from the findings in this study.

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MOTIVATION AS PATTERNS OF INTERACTIVE FACTORS

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The study proposes that learner motivation can best be characterized as "patterns of interacting factors" and that "thresholds," or times of major pattern changes, occur when the learner moves from preparticipant to enrollee and from enrollee to continuing learner. It also proposes that there is a threshold between "persistence" behavior and optimum learning effort. Motivation, therefore, is both more complex and more subject to change than many of the well-known paradigms have suggested. The study reports on a successful effort to develop and test a method for mapping learner motivational patterns. As a result, the author's propositions about the nature of learner motivation are supported, and the practitioner gains a new way to examine learner motives and influences.

MOTIVATION AS PATTERNS OF INTERACTIVE FACTORS

The subject of learner motivation has been studied from a variety of perspectives. Houle (1962), Boshier (1971), Boshier and Collins (1985), and others have looked at "learning (participation) orientation." Darkenwald and Valentine (1985), Darkenwald and Hays (1986), Martindale and Drake (1989) and others have examined "deterrents to participation." Darkenwald and Gavin (1987), Langenbach and Korhonen (1988), and others have studied "persisters and dropouts," through analyzing the learning environment and the expectations of learners. Fingeret (1983) and Quigley (1987) have talked about "resistance" as an active learner behavior. Wladkowski (1985) has proposed a motivation model which focuses on six factors drawn from previously published research and theory and discusses their influence in three stages of learning": beginning, during, ending. All of these approaches can be helpful in understanding learner behaviors at some level and should not be ignored. However, these essentially positivist paradigms, constructed, as they are, upon the idea that one can examine a relatively limited number of motivational factors (or categories) and adequately explain learner behavior, leave much to be desired. They supply neither an image of the complexities of human behavior nor a holistic depiction of their interaction.

This study examines quite a different way of conceptualizing "learner motivation." The study suggests that there is a more accurate and complete way to conceptualize" motivation and a process by which individual learners (and adult education programmers) can analyze motivational phenomena for purposes of designing intervention strategies.

The essence of the proposed motivation paradigm can be summed up in the following hypothetical propositions:

1. Learner motivation with respect to any given learning experience or program begins with the earliest incidents of awareness and interest and continues through the final learner contact (including retrospective thinking) with the program.

2. Learner motivation can best be characterized as "patterns of interacting factors" which impact upon learner behavior from moment to moment. The factors may actually number a hundred or more, of which 25-50 are identifiable by a learner. These patterns of interacting factors are similar in concept to Lewin's "force field," but not exactly the same.

3. A change in any factor (or the addition of a previously absent factor) also affects the impacts of other factors. Thus, efforts to influence any given "motivator" may produce outcomes different from those intended because the changes in other related factors in the pattern have not been anticipated or recognized.

4. "Thresholds," or times of major pattern changes, occur when the learner moves from preparticipant to enrollee and from enrollee to continuing learner. There is likewise a threshold between "persistence" behavior and optimum learning effort. These "threshold" experiences are far more individual and complex in nature than they are generally thought to be (or presented as being in other motivation paradigms). Learners rarely maintain a consistent pattern through a threshold into the next phase or level of activity. Programmers who assume such consistency in the impact of particular motivation factors are likely to misconceive strategies for "improving" learner motivation.

5. It is possible to "map" an unlimited number of factors as a way of describing a learner's motivational "pattern" at any given time. (There is no need to be limited to eight or ten "common" motivators.)Therefore, threshold changes in behavior and changes at other

times can be described (diagnosed) in terms of differences between a current motivational pattern and a prior one, which may involve dozens of life circumstances and program circumstances. Practitioners thus can gain insights about learner behaviors that can be translated into effective counseling and other programmatic responses to learner needs. The motivational paradigm and mapping procedures presented here support the wisdom and efficacy of individualized treatment of adult learners.

Methodology

A preliminary study was done to test the validity of the hypothetical propositions A procedure for mapping, referred to in proposition five, was developed. Twenty adult students participated in the study, ten university graduate students and ten basic skills students. Members of each group of students were drawn from two different program sites (a university campus, a university satellite site, and adult basic skills programs in two communities).

A life history procedure was used to assist students in generating data about the motivational factors influencing their behavior in four stages related to program participation: preparticipation interest (PPI), commitment to participate or enroll (CP/E), commitment to persist/continue (CP/C), and commitment to their best learning effort (CBE). Students were given the option of being interviewed,or generating the data themselves after directions were given. Rating sheets were provided, and students were given the following directions (in part):

First write down (or tell me) in your own words all factors which you can recall as having had any influence whatsoever (positive or negative) on your early interest in the program, your eventual decision to participate, your continuing participation, and the degree to which you have given your best effort. Put each factor on the analysis sheet. Then, taking one stage at a time, concentrate on remembering the situation as accurately as possible and indicate the amount and type of influence of each of the factors that you have written down, using the following scale:

(strongly negative influence)	-4	-3	-2	-1	0 (no influence)	+1	+2	+3	+4	(strongly positive influence)

Rating sheets were completed, rating the specific influence of all factors generated in each of the stages. The "commitment to best learning effort," while not a "stage" in a temporal sense, was nevertheless treated as being a distinct learner experience with different demands from the other three.

Data Results

The following are data collected from each learner. The "change rates" from stage to stage were computed by adding the units of change between factor ratings across the threshold between two stages and dividing by the number of factors to get an average rate of change per factor. Three change rates are reported in the following order: at the PPI-CP/E threshold, the CP/E-CP/C threshold, and the CP/C-CBE threshold.

B1 (40-year-old female basic skills student) identified 15 motivational factors. Thirteen of the 15 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.67; 1.73; 0.60.

B2 (56-year-old female basic skills student) identified 14 motivational factors. All 14 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.43; 3.07; 1.64. The legal requirement to participate in order to be eligible for food stamps had a maximum positive enrollment influence (4), but that influence changed to a maximum negative influence (-4) on the desire to persist and do the best possible work, a change or eight units.

B3 (51-year-old female basic skills student) identified 13 motivational factors. Ten showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.30; 1.00; 0.69. Increasing self-maturity was no factor in preparticipation interest and commitment to participate (0), but was a major factor (4) in persistence and commitment to best effort.

B4 (37-year-old male basic skills student) identified 10 motivational factors. All showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.70; 1.50; 0.40.

B5 (46-year-old female basic skills student) identified 13 motivational factors. Ten factors showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 1.77; 1.31; 0.23. The influence of one factor, the desire (or lack of desire) for her own independence, ranged from -4 at the time of preparticipation to +3 for commitments to continue and to put forth the best effort.

B6 (32-year-old female basic skills student) identified nine motivational factors. Seven factors showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.89; 1.56; 2.00.

B7 (49-yar-old male basic skills student) identified 9 motivational factors. Eight showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 1.00; 1.11; 0.89. Confidence in his success was a negative influence (-2) hindering preparticipation interest, while it was a positive influence in commitment to persist/complete (+3) and commitment to best effort (+4).

B8 (20-year-old female basic skills student) identified 10 motivational factors. All but one showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 1.00; 0.50; 0.70.

B9 (48-year-old female basic skills student) identified 10 motivational factors. Nine showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 2.30; 1.40; 1.20.

B10 (47-year-old female basic skills student) identified 12 motivational factors. Seven showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.58; 1.21; 0.46.

G1 (43-year- old male graduate student) identified 15 factors. All 15 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.87; 0.67; 0.40.

G2 (40-year-old male graduate student) identified 30 factors. Twenty-eight of the 30 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.43; 1.33; 0.87.

G3 (30-year-old male graduate student) identified 25 factors. All 25 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.52; 2.16; 1.76. Getting an assistantship had a maximum positive influence (4) on persistence, but was described as having a slight negative influence (-1) on doing his best work, a change of five units at that threshold.

G4 (40-year-old female graduate student) identified 30 factors. Twenty-six of the 30 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.50; 0.27; 1.17.

G5 (45-year-old female graduate student) identified 28 factors. Twenty-seven of the 28 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 1.07; 1.21; 1.75.

G6 (33-year-old male graduate student) identified 10 factors. Eight of the 10 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.00; 0.90; 1.00.

G7 (45-year-old male graduate student) identified 12 factors. Five of the 12 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.25; 0.00; 0.58.

G8 (33-year-old female graduate student) identified 21 factors. All 21 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.38; 2.24; 1.43.

G9 (37-year-old female graduate student) identified 23 factors. All 23 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 1.13; 1.96; 0.75.

TABLE 1

DATA COLLECTED

Student	M/F	AGE	# FACTORS	#-CHANGED	PPI-CPE	CP/E-CP/C	CA/C-CBE	LARGEST ITEM RANGE
B1	F	40	15	13	0.67	1.73	0.60	6
B2	F	56	14	14	0.43	3.07	1.64	8
B3	F	51	13	[illegible]	[illegible]	1.00	0.69	4
B4	M	37	10	10	[illegible]	1.50	0.40	8
B5	F	46	13	10	[illegible]	1.31	0.23	7
B6	F	32	9	7	0.89	1.56	2.00	4
B7	M	49	9	8	1.00	1.11	0.89	6
B8	F	20	10	9	1.00	0.50	0.70	7
B9	F	48	10	9	2.30	1.40	1.20	8
B10	F	47	12	7	0.58	1.21	0.46	5
Sub Means	**2M/8F**	**42.6**	**11.5**	**9.7**	**0.96**	**1.44**	**0.88**	**6.3**
G1	M	43	15	15	0.87	0.67	0.40	3
G2	M	40	30	28	0.43	1.33	0.87	4
G3	M	30	25	25	0.52	2.16	1.76	5
G4	F	40	30	26	0.50	0.27	1.17	3
G5	F	45	28	27	1.07	1.21	1.75	4
G6	M	33	10	8	0.00	0.90	1.00	3
G7	M	45	12	5	0.25	0.00	0.58	2
G8	F	33	21	21	0.38	2.24	1.43	6
G9	F	37	23	23	1.13	1.96	0.75	4
Sub Means	**5M/5F**	**38.6**	**22.9**	**21.0**	**0.53**	**1.15**	**1.09**	**3.8**
Overall Means	**7M/13F**	**40.6**	**17.2**	**15.35**	**0.745**	**1.29**	**0.99**	**5.05**

G 10 (40-year-old female graduate student) identified 35 factors. Thirty-two of the 35 showed one or more changes in influence as the stages changed. The change rates were 0.11; 0.71; 1.17.

The data are summarized in Table 1.

Conclusions

The data provide preliminary support for all five hypothetical propositions. The motivations of these learners were pattern-like, involving an average of 17.2 identifiable factors, 15.3 of which changed in influence one or more times across the four stages (three thresholds) for the average learner. Three learners identified 30 or more factors whose motivational influence could be evaluated.

The process for mapping learner motivation patterns proved to be a productive and practical method, quite within the capabilities of practitioners wishing to use it in counseling learners and individualizing instructional strategies.

The study was conducted in retrospect because the learners were already well along in the programs in question. However, the use of this method could involve periodic motivation pattern assessments (at enrollment and at midpoint, for example) if the practitioner wanted learner "maps" that were timely and relied less upon the learner's ability to remember the different stages of motivation in detail.

A list of references used in this study is available from the author.

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